



**A Cross-Cultural Study of the Use of Hedging Markers and Dogmatism in Postgraduate Writing of Native and Non-native Speakers of English**

دراسة دولية لاستخدام أدوات الموازنة والغلو في نصوص الكتابات الخاصة بطلاب الدراسات العليا من غير الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية والناطقين بها

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## Abstract

This study investigates the frequency of hedged propositions in academic writing, which are produced by both native (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs). To this end, two corpora, which represent native and non-native writings respectively, are compiled and investigated using contrastive interlanguage analysis (CIA). This computer-aided investigation, which involves comparing quantitative and qualitative data, is adopted to identify what the most frequent hedging markers, used by native and non-native writers, are, and whether there is any significant difference between the frequencies of these markers in both writings. It also intends to investigate the distributional pattern of these hedges across the paper sections. This research is an attempt to fill a gap in literature, as there is a paucity of studies written on corpus analysis in the Middle East, so this study seems to be one of the few sizeable corpora of tertiary English writing from the Middle East. The findings suggest that non-native speakers underuse hedges and the quality of these hedges is usually not so high as those of the native speakers. The study findings also indicate that the lexical density of non-native speakers' writing is slightly less in comparison to that of the native speakers. Moreover, while there is an overuse of modal auxiliaries with root meanings in the non-native's corpus, the number of intensifiers, especially probability adverbs, is less than that of the native speakers. Finally, there is an overuse of all-round boosters in the non-native speakers' corpus. All these deficiencies lead to either excessively emphatic or overly tentative writing. The researcher concluded that many of these language problems are teaching-induced or due to L1 transfer. The study ends with recommendations for future research.

**Keywords:** corpus analysis, native speakers, non-native speakers, hedges, modality, overuse, underuse

### خلاصة البحث

تناقش هذه الدراسة مدى تكرار الاقتراحات الموضوعية أو الغير مغالى فيها والموجودة في النصوص الاكاديمية والتي تم كتابتها من قبل المتحدثين الأصليين للغة وغير الناطقين بها. تحقيقا لهذه الغاية تم تجميع مجموعتان من النصوص التي تم كتابتها بواسطة المتحدثين الأصليين وغير الأصليين وتحليلهما باستخدام التحليل المقارن بين اللغات.

هذه الدراسة والتي تم عملها بمساعدة الكمبيوتر والتي تنطوي على مقارنة البيانات الكمية والنوعية تهدف الى تحديد ما هي أدوات الموازنة/التحوط الأكثر شيوعا والتي يستخدمها الكتاب الأصليين وغير الأصليين وعما اذا ما كان هناك أي اختلاف كبير بين تكرار هذه الأدوات في كلا الكتابات.

كما تعتزم أيضا التحقيق في نمط توزيع أدوات التحوط/الموازنة هذه عبر أقسام الورقة البحثية. ويعتبر هذا البحث محاولة لسد الفجوة الموجودة في الأدب حيث أن هناك ندرة في الدراسات والتي تتناول التحليل الكمي في منطقة الشرق الأوسط. لذلك تعتبر هذه الدراسة واحدة من عدد قليل من الدراسات الكمية للكتابات الجامعية المنتجة باللغة الإنجليزية.

وتشير النتائج الى أن غير الناطقين لديهم نقص في عدد ونوعية أدوات الموازنة هذه مقارنة بأقرانهم من المتحدثين الأصليين. كما تشير النتائج أيضا الى أن الكثافة المعجمية لغير المتحدثين أقل من مثلتها عند المتحدثين الأصليين

وعلاوة على ذلك، بينما هناك إفراط في استخدام الأفعال الناقصة ذات المعني الأصلي والبسيط من قبل المتحدثين غير الأصليين فإن عدد أدوات التعزيز وخاصة ظروف الاحتمال أقل من مثلتها عند المتحدثين الأصليين. وأخيرا هناك إفراط في استخدام أدوات التعزيز التي تصلح للاستخدام في جميع الظروف من قبل المتحدثين غير الأصليين. كل هذه الأخطاء أدت الى جعل كتابات المتحدثين غير الأصليين أما أن تكون مؤكدة بشكل مفرط أو بها تردد بشكل غير مقبول. وخلص الباحث الى أن العديد من هذه الأخطاء تعزى الى التدريس الذي لم يتناولها بشكل صحيح أو الى تأثير اللغة الأم. وتختتم الدراسة بتوصيات للبحث في المستقبل .

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## Chapter One: Introduction

English language is one of the most predominant and important languages all over the world. Hence, it has become the main language for knowledge dissemination. This predominance is clear from the large number of academic journals published in English. It is also the main language for most of the conferences happening all over the world. This predominance has forced many non-native scholars to strive hard to produce their works in proper written English. Some of them are able to succeed and others have encountered many obstacles in their way and finally failed to produce work at a level that lives up to the expectations of a good piece of writing. One of the main problems that is faced by non-native speakers is the inability to express their stance or point of view without being dogmatic/hyperbolic. Scarcella and Brunak (1981) admitted that the Arab (as an example of non-native speakers) learners lack the competence of using hedges. However, when the literature of modality was reviewed, it was found that this incompetence is not confined to Arabs but rather it is a common feature among L2 learners, such as French, German and Dutch learners (Kasper, 1979; Robberecht & Peteghem, 1982).

Writing does not only work to convey information, but also is used to build a social relationship between the writer and the reader. Writers use this relationship for their benefit because they claim that they have a solidarity with the reader and this gives them the right to evaluate their own propositions on behalf of the reader. Hyland (2005b) suggests that the writer's awareness of the reader creates a successful piece of academic writing. This trend has become very popular in the academic genre and this tendency has motivated many researchers to look at different language features, such as hedges, personal pronouns and reporting verbs and the role they play in persuasive writing.

Hyland (2005b) argues that evaluation and interaction are not easy to describe. Both of these two terminologies have been studied and given different titles. Hunston and Thompson (eds. 2000) referred to evaluation as the writer's point of view, judgment and feeling, while other researchers referred to this language feature as epistemic modality (Hyland, 1998) and as metadiscourse (Crismore, 1989). This evaluative feature of language has been the centre of focus for many approaches, such as Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The SFL model is mainly based on the principle that language use should be connected to three contexts: institutional, cultural and social. All these approaches have tried to find how specific language devices could be used by the

writer to create a relationship with the reader and customize the text so that it meets the expectation of the reader.

## **1.1 Background of the study**

The main topic of this study is hedging in academic writing and the different rhetorical tools that can be used by writers to engage readers. This area of hedging has been extensively studied and given a great deal of attention all over the world, except in the Middle East. This inattention shows that this rhetorical technique has not been the centre of focus for either researchers or material designers.

As mentioned earlier, many researchers have investigated this aspect of uncertainty (imprecision) and certainty (precision) (Naess, 1966; Skelton, 1985) by analysing texts produced by non-native speakers and contrasting them with native speakers' writing using certain software (viz., concordance software, such as WordSmith and Wmatrix3). The main approach used to hold this comparison between native and non-native features is called 'Contrastive Interlingual analysis' (CIA) (Granger, 2002). This computer-aided method entails many functions, such as wordlist, which helps to find the words/phrases of high, medium frequency and even hapax legomena (i.e., words that are located only once in a corpus) (Scott & Tribble, 2006).

## **1.2 Purpose and significance of the study**

In this current study, the researcher investigates the hedging markers used by the British University in Dubai (BUiD) students when they wrote their assignments for two modules (i.e., Research Methods in Education and TESOL Syllabus Design). Ninety assignments, which formed the experimental corpus, were retrieved from Blackboard (the platform where students submit their assignments). All hedging markers and devices, which show the writer's uncertainty and certainty, were quantified and compared to another corpus written by native speakers who were at the same educational level. Generally, all language markers that express writer's stance or interpersonal relationship are investigated, with a particular focus on hedging markers. The three main questions that the study tries to answer are:

1. What are the most frequent hedging markers used by native and non-native writers?
2. Is there any significant difference between the frequencies of these markers in both writings?
3. What is the distributional pattern of these hedges across the paper?

The main title of the dissertation is “A Cross-cultural Study of the Use of Hedging Markers and Dogmatism in Postgraduate Writing of Native and Non-native Speakers of English”. This title was chosen for various reasons. First, the researcher’s background as an ESL teacher would help him to analyse the writing of the learners. Second, there is a paucity of research written on corpus analysis in the Middle East region. In other words, although there is an extensive literature on corpus analysis in other parts of the world, little research and investigation has been undertaken into postgraduate writing in the Arab World, so this study seems to be one of the few sizeable corpora of tertiary English writing from the Middle East. Finally, the findings of this study would help the instructors at the Writing Centre within the Academic Support Department, at the British University in Dubai, to develop material that could help students write without being dogmatic and shed light on the different bundles that could be taught to students to enrich their lexical knowledge. In a similar vein, Aijmer (2002) also concluded that learners should be introduced to more varieties of modals and collocations.

Since hedging can be expressed by one word, such as *may*, or by a bundle of words, such as *it could be argued that*, this study will investigate both types of hedges (one word level and a compound phrase) and how they could be structured and used to serve this function. In particular, it investigates the students’ level of expertise when they recall memorized chunks or clusters of words. These chunks have been referred to with various titles, such as prefabricated language (McKenny, 2006); lexical bundles (Salazar, 2011); multi-word expressions (Hyland, 2008); and clusters (Scott, 1996). It is expected that many bundles serving different functions will be found, so given the fact that there will be numerous bundles with different functions, this study will mainly focus on the bundles that reveal the writer’s stance, attitude and interpersonal dimension.

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The literature review of this dissertation progresses as follows. First, the shift from accuracy to appropriacy is explored. Then the researcher discusses how this shift has paved the way to the introduction of metadiscourse and corpus analysis. After that, the most relevant and seminal studies that discussed metadiscourse and how it is categorized are investigated. Then, hedges, as central exemplars of metadiscourse, are defined. Finally, the researcher explains how different researchers have approached hedges. As defined in this introduction, the review is organized thematically. There is extensive literature on corpus analysis and using hedging markers, so the researcher decided to be as selective as possible.

### **2.2 Applied linguistics and the shift from accuracy to appropriacy**

When the ‘Grammar Translation’ and ‘Direct Method’ methods proved failure, ‘the Audio-lingual method’ saw light. This method depended mainly on memorization and drilling. In the 1970s, Hymes (1972) developed the ‘communicative approach’. This approach emphasized that language competence is not only confined to the ability to produce correct grammar, but it also incorporates the ability to know how, where and when to use these utterances. This approach led to the radical shift from language accuracy to language appropriacy. When there was a shift of focus from the mere study of language grammar to language function, metadiscourse found its way into this field of applied linguistics.

### **2.3 Metadiscourse**

The term metadiscourse was first introduced by Zelling Harris in 1959 (cited Hyland 2005a) to show how the writer or interlocutor guides the recipient to understand the text or speech in a certain way. The term has been used with other linguistic terms, such as connectives and hedges. It seems that there has been a lot of disagreement on the category that metadiscourse belongs to: some researchers preferred to categorize it as a functional part of language (Lautamatti, 1978; Williams, Bizup & M, 1981); others included it under the syntactical category, and some preferred to refer to it as both a functional and syntactical feature of language (Crismore, Markkanen & Steffensen, 1993). Chen (2011) went beyond the previous categorizations and classified metadiscourse as a functional, propositional and rhetorical feature of a language. According to Hyland (2005a), communication is not only confined to exchanging information, but it also embodies the attitudes

and stances of both the sender and recipient. This judgment and reflection from the interlocutor's side makes rigid and dry messages more coherent and legible (Hyland, 2000). It has also been argued that metadiscourse is an indication of a good piece of writing produced by either ESL learners or native speakers (Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995).

### 2.3.1 Bipartite and tripartite categorization of language functions

According to Hyland (2005a) all attempts to categorize metadiscourse are based on or originate from the taxonomy developed by Vande Kopple (1985) who proposed that metadiscourse devices can be classified into two main categories: textual and interpersonal.

The textual category: This category includes four subcategories:

- 1) The text connectives: such as sequences (e.g., *first, second, then etc.*); reminders (e.g., *as we saw in...*) and topicalizers (e.g., *in connection with*)
- 2) Code glosses: such as more information between brackets or examples given so that the reader could grasp the intended message. Using these devices depends on how the writer evaluates the reader's knowledge
- 3) Validity markers: these markers show how committed the writer is to the probability or factuality of a statement. There are three subcategories of validity markers, which are: hedges (e.g., *may*), emphatics (e.g., *undoubtedly*) and **attributors** which provide a support to specific point/view based on the support provided by another prominent figure (e.g., *according to X*)
- 4) **Narrators**: such as *according to X*

The interpersonal category: This category includes three subcategories:

- 1) Illocution markers: these are the words that the writer uses to show which role he/she is playing at a certain part of the text, for example, words like *to conclude* could be used by the writer to show that the role, he/she is performing, is that of a person coming to a conclusion.
- 2) Attitude markers: these markers express the writer's stance towards the proposition he/she is suggesting (e.g., *interestingly*).
- 3) Commentaries: a writer uses these markers to get involved in an indirect dialogue with the reader.

It is very difficult to distinguish between many of these categories as their functions overlap (Hyland, 2005a; Sanford, 2012), for instance, attributors and narrators perform the same function. Due to this vagueness, many researchers (Crismore, Markkanen & Steffensen, 1993; Hyland, 2005a) have tried to enhance Vande Kopple's categorization. Both Sinclair (1981) and Hunston (2000) have also discussed this aspect of written language in a more sophisticated approach. They distinguished between two planes of texts: the autonomous and interactive. The autonomous plane of a text refers to how it is structured and organized (world entities). It is more related to the language itself, but not its function. On the other hand, the interactive plane of texts refers to how the writer evaluates claims, negotiates and interacts with the reader (discourse entities). This distinction between text structure (autonomous-metadiscourse) and the message (propositional discourse) it conveys seems unreasonable because these two features happen together and cannot be separated.

### 2.3.2 Metadiscourse signals

Hyland (2005a) critically analysed the work done on metadiscourse and tried to present a more robust model, but ended up with a model that is very similar to Vande Kopple (1985). Hyland based his taxonomy on two main dimensions:

The interactive plane: On this plane, the writer is aware of the reader's anticipations and seeks hard to satisfy his/her needs and expectations using some resources (devices), which could be used to constrain/control what can be unfolded (understood) from the text by the reader (Tse & Hyland, 2006). The writer explains to what extent a text has been construed to satisfy these needs (i.e., the reader's needs). This plane entails five categories: transition markers (e.g., *and*), frame markers (e.g., *finally*), evidentials (e.g., *Z states, according to X*), code glosses (e.g., *such.*) and endophoric markers (e.g., *noted above.*).

The interactional plane: On the interactional plane, the writer's stance and judgment can be clearly identified by the reader. The writer also creates an imagined dialogue with the reader and responds to the questions that the reader would raise. This plane entails five categories: hedges (e.g., *about.*), boosters (e.g., *definitely*), attitude markers (e.g., *surprisingly*), self-mentions (e.g., *my*), and engagement markers. It seems that the distinction between these two dimensions is vague and carries many interpretations. Both Hyland and Vande Kopple's models are very similar, but Hyland's model included more subcategories than Vande Kopple's (10 and 7, respectively).

Additionally, it is more detailed and pays more attention to certain features such as how writers explain their stances and how they can engage readers. Hyland's list of hedges is of great importance to the researcher as he uses the same list and applies it to the two corpora. To be more precise, this list will be searched for in the two corpora to find how frequent each hedge is in the two corpora (native and non-native). Hyland's list of hedges consists of 101 hedges, but these devices were randomly mentioned on a list, so the researcher decided to improve this list by categorizing hedges according to their part of speech (see table 1).

**Table 1** Hyland's list of 101 hedges

Adverb		Adjective	Verb		Adjective phrase	Adverbial phrase	Modal auxiliaries	Noun
About= approximately	Plausibly	Apparent	Appear	Indicate	certain amount	From my perspective	Could	Doubt
Almost= nearly	Possibly	doubtful	Appeared	Indicated	certain extent	From our perspective	Couldn't	
Apparently	Presumably	Plausible	Appears	Indicates	certain level	From this perspective	May	
approximately	Probably	Possible	Argue	Postulate		In general	Might	
around= approximately	Quite	Presumable	Argued	Postulated		In most cases	Ought	
Broadly	Rather	Probable	Argues	Postulates		In most instances	Should	
Essentially	Relatively	Typical	Assume	Seems		In my opinion	Would	
Fairly	Roughly	Uncertain	Assumed	Suggest		In my view	Wouldn't	
Frequently	Sometimes	Unclear	Claim	Suggested		In this view		
Generally	Somewhat		Claimed	Suggests		In our opinion		
Largely	Typically		Claims	Suppose		In our view		
Likely	Uncertainly		Estimate	Supposed		On the whole		
Mainly	Unclearly		Estimated	Supposes		To my knowledge		
Maybe	Unlikely		Feel	Suspect				
Mostly	Usually		Feels	Suspects				
Often			Felt	Tend to				
Perhaps			Guess	Tends to				
				Tended to				

Hinkel (2002) extensively studied this interactional feature of the language. Her study is comparative and more detailed as it holds a comparison among six groups from different countries (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian and Arabic). The writing of all these groups were compared to native speakers' writings. She was on the lookout for the following metadiscourse functions:



- 1) Self-mention: (e.g., *I, me*)
- 2) Boosters: emphasizing expressions (e.g., certainly)
- 3) Hedges: she distinguished here between the words used to decrease the force of sentences (downstatements, e.g., fairly) and the adverb of frequency (e.g., usually) and finally the hedges that reduce the possibility of facts (e.g., perhaps)
- 4) Engagement markers: this category included all the devices that were employed by the writer to engage the reader, for example, second personal pronoun, necessity modals and presupposition markers (e.g., obviously).

**Figure 1** Interactional features

	L1	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Vietnamese	Indonesian	Arabic
First-person pronouns	1.95	<b>2.63</b>	<b>3.97</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>2.78</b>	1.92
Boosters	1.22	<b>2.83</b>	<b>2.26</b>	<b>1.97</b>	<b>2.68</b>	<b>1.92</b>	<b>2.77</b>
Amplifying adverbs	1.73	<b>3.17</b>	<b>2.94</b>	<b>2.81</b>	<b>2.14</b>	<b>2.67</b>	<b>3.03</b>
Downtoners	0.48	0.42	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.33</b>	0.42	0.60	0.55
Frequency adverbs	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.00	<b>0.25</b>	0.22	0.18
Hedges	1.39	<b>1.17</b>	<b>1.10</b>	<b>1.41</b>	<b>0.88</b>	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.33</b>
Second-person pronouns	0.00	<b>1.07</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.60</b>	0.00	<b>0.40</b>
Rhetorical questions	0.00	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>	0.00	<b>0.21</b>
Necessity modals	0.60	<b>1.36</b>	<b>1.34</b>	<b>1.37</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.84</b>
Presupposition markers	0.00	0.00	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>	0.00	0.00	<b>0.00</b>

(Hinkel, 2002 in Hyland, 2005a, p. 130)

As can be seen from the table above that non-native speakers' use of some metadiscourse features, such as self-mention (viz., first personal pronoun), boosters and engagement devices, far exceeded the native speakers' use. However, the other metadiscourse features, such as hedges, were less frequent. When trying to justify her findings, Hinkel interestingly justified the overuse/underuse of some metadiscourse features, among non-native speakers, as follows:

Self-mention: Lack of knowledge of the English norms or the confusion of the teaching material, which did not seem to encourage or discourage the students to use personal pronouns. The researcher, himself, suffered greatly from this confusion because during his study, some of his supervisors/lecturers were strict regarding the use of personal pronouns and consider using them as a deficiency in writing while others did not mind whether students used personal pronouns.

Boosters: It seems that in other languages, other than English, overstatement is an effective way of persuasion. Hinkel depended on this conclusion to justify the high frequency of amplifiers and boosters in non-native speakers' writing.

Hedges: They are used to show the open-mindedness of the writer and that they allow more space for the reader to give his/her point of view of what is being discussed. They also express the uncertainty of the author towards the point of view he/she is casting. Hinkel concluded that all of the non-native speakers that participated in her study, underused the hedges except for the Korean participants. In this regard, Holmes (1988) argued that the divergence in the use of hedges correlates with the norms of politeness that vary from a language to another, for example, she argued that what English speakers consider as impolite would be polite by the norms of German native speakers and vice versa.

## 2.4 Hedges

According to the Cambridge Dictionary (2016), a hedge is “a word or phrase that makes what you say less strong”. Hedging is a feature of academic writing which distinguishes it from other genres. There are some epistemic devices, such as *perhaps* and *may*, that show the open mindedness of the writer and that he/she does not have full commitment to what he/she is proposing. In other words, the presence of hedges in writing proves that the information is subjective because it is given as a personal view rather than a fact (Hyland, 2005a). Poos and Simpson (2002) asserted that hedges can serve many pragmatic functions, for example, the hedging markers, such as *kind of* and *sort of*, can be used to show inexactitude (lack of precision) or to reduce the force of an ascertain. Out of curiosity, the researcher decided to find the difference between these two hedging markers (i.e., *kind of* and *sort of*), so he looked them up and found that both of them are used to make statements less direct or exact, but *sort of* is mainly an American phrase whereas *kind of* is a British one (Cambridge Dictionary, 2016). In a similar vein, Lakoff (1973) describes hedges as those devices which make the writer's proposition fuzzier (less clear) or less fuzzy (less unclear). Markkanen and Schrodereds (eds. 1997) commented on Lakoff's definition by saying that his main concern was the logical rather than communicative properties of some expressions like *sort of* and *largely*. However, they went on to qualify what they had said by confirming that Lakoff referred to the possibility of hedges to carry a communicative message by interacting with the situation in which an utterance may occur.

Learners of language should be taught how to strike a balance in their writing in order not to sound either arrogant or excessively tentative (McKenny, 2006). This area of how the writer judges and evaluates his/her proposition has been introduced under different titles, such as evaluation (eds. Hunston & Thompson, 2000), engagement (Hyland, 2001), epistemic and attitudinal stance (Biber & Finegan, 1998) and modalization (Halliday, 1994). Researchers apparently classified hedging markers differently, but in essence, they were categorizing the same devices but with different titles. One of the most important taxonomies is Hyland's (1994). He argued that hedging devices can be divided into the following taxonomies: auxiliary verbs; expressions with modal meaning, such as *perhaps*; lexical verbs with modal meaning; if conditionals; questions forms; time reference; impersonal phrases; passivisation and impersonal phrases.

### 2.4.1 Meyer's taxonomy

In a similar vein, Salagar-Meyer (1994) proposed a taxonomy of hedging markers, which consists of five categories:

- 1) Shields: this group consists of all auxiliary verbs (communicating possibility); lexical verbs with modal meaning such as *appear* and *seem*; adverbials of probability such as *likely*; adjectives of probability such as *probable*; epistemic verbs which are identified with the probability of a proposition such *to propose* or *to suggest*.
- 2) Approximators: this category includes adverbs of degree, time and frequency, such as *approximately*, *roughly* and *often*. They are used to make things obscure or when the precise figures are inaccessible.
- 3) Author's personal point of view (personal doubt), such as *I believe*
- 4) Intensifiers (emotional), such as *extremely interesting*
- 5) Compound hedges, such as *it could be suggested*. This subcategory can include compound hedges up to quadruple hedges or more, for example, *it would seem somewhat unlikely that*. Murniato (2013) did a better job than Salagar as she (i.e. Murniato) divided the compound hedges into two categories: (1) a modal auxiliary with a lexical verb, which has a sense of hedging, for example *would appear* (2) a lexical verb with an adjective carrying a meaning of a hedge, for example *seem acceptable*. She added that these compound hedges could consist of double, treble or quadruple words. Hyland's (2005a) work has an advantage over Salagar-Meyer's (1994) as the

former created a list of markers for each category, which makes it easy for other researchers to duplicate his work, but Salagar-Meyer did not do that. She only divided the hedges into taxonomies without developing a list of markers for each taxonomy. Some researchers objected to the idea of searching a corpus for a previously prepared list of hedging markers; for example, Holmes (1988) admits that it is difficult to compile one list of the lexical devices and then search for them. However, after reviewing literature and the four corpora compiled, she managed to collect more than 350 lexical devices, which were categorized, into four main groups: modal verbs (e.g., cannot, have got to), lexical verbs (e.g., appear, argue), adverbials (e.g., clearly, indeed), nouns (e.g., doubt, opinion) and adjectives (e.g., evident, inevitable).

Returning to the difference between *shields* and *approximators*, it was concluded that the *Shields* protect the author in case his/her proposition is proved to be wrong as they show the writer's assessment of the validity of the truth in a proposition as a whole while the *approximators* express the writer's assessment of the validity of the truth in the proposition itself (Lakoff, 1972; Schröder, 1997). In fact, the distinction between *shields* and *approximators* can be simply explained as follows; *shields* show the writer's commitment to a proposition indirectly or implicitly while *approximators* explain this commitment explicitly or directly. Although with both techniques, the reader can deduct the writer's view, but with the *shields*, the writer looks as if he/she is trying to keep a distance between himself/herself and the truth in the proposition.

**I think** *X produces Y.* (shield)

*X produces **sort of** Y.* (approximator)

When Lakoff created a list of hedges, he included not only the words that weaken the writer's commitment to a proposition (i.e., *Shields*), but also those, which intensify this proposition (approximators). This list included an extensive variety of expressions, such as *sort of* and *really*. He also claims that there is nothing that is completely true or false. Being true or false is a matter of degree; anything could be true/false to a certain degree or in a certain situation, but not in a different situation. The same idea of the probability of a proposition and the degree of commitment from the writer's side appears in the work of Conrad and Biber (2000). In this study, they distinguish between the epistemic and attitudinal stances:

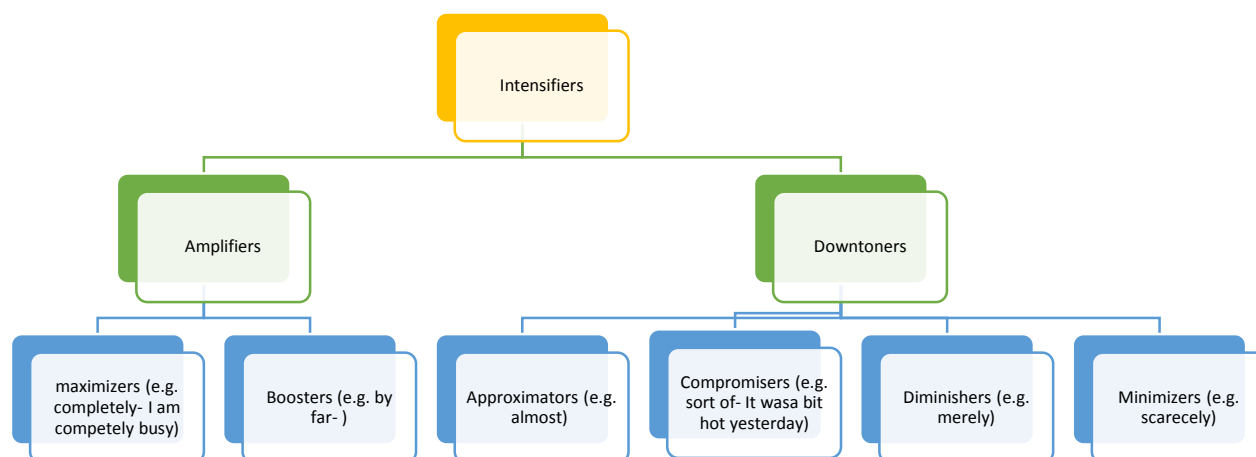
Epistemic stance: it refers to the degree of certainty of the writer or the source from which he/she obtained the information (e.g., possibly, according to x).

Attitudinal stance: it reflects the feeling of the author towards what he/she has just said/written (e.g., unfortunately). This area of evaluating the text has gained a lot of popularity and the negative connotation related to the vagueness or imprecision of texts started to change, as many scholars now believe that this vagueness has become an important feature of academic writing (Lemke, 1998; eds. Huston & Thompson, 2000). Similarly, Channell (1994, p. 3) believes that proficient users are able to deploy “a degree of vagueness which is right”. Hence, her main criteria of using vagueness is the appropriateness. In other words, the competent writer should generally know when and where a certain degree of vague language is to be deployed. She went on to affirm that English language learners were not taught how or when to use the devices that make their language lack precision. Even competent learners may appear arrogant because of their inability to use hedges (e.g., downtoners and modal verbs) (McKenny, 2006).

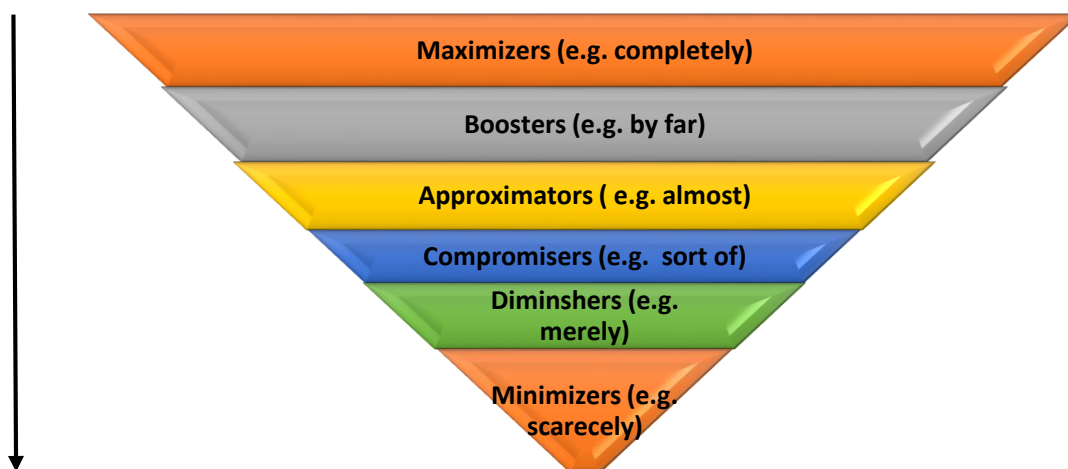
In summary, all of these categories (Vande Kopple, Hinkel, Meyer, Lakoff and Hyland’s) cause confusion and many of them overlap. For example, in Salager-Meyer’s taxonomy and with a deep look at approximators and shields, it can be easily discovered that most of the *approximators* can do the same job of *shields*. In addition to that, many of the compound hedges consist of at least one main modal auxiliary, which is part of the *shields*. Koutsantoni (2007) confirms that the examples of intensifiers given by Salager-Meyer are no more than examples of attitude markers and not hedges. She adds that the third category, which is the ‘author’s personal doubt’, can include any item from the other four categories. She finally concludes that the most detailed taxonomy is Hyland’s because its focus is not just on the textual tools, but how to deploy these tools to give interpretations on behalf of the reader (Hyland, 1996).

### **2.4.2 Intensifiers**

Hedges can be expressed in different ways using different devices. Some of the devices that express the writer’s engagement are boosters, diminishers and minimizers (adverbials of degree).

**Figure 2** Quirk et al.'s modal of intensifiers

(Adopted from Quirk et al. 1985, p. 589)

**Figure 3** Intensifiers pyramid

There seems to be an almost unanimous agreement among researchers that NSs tend to show their indirectness by hedging, whereas the NNSs seem to overstate issues by using some devices, such as intensifiers and categorical phrases. By the same token, NSs tend to downstate (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Milton, 1998). In his study, Lorenz (1998) found that NNSs (German students) overused the intensifiers and tried to justify this by referring to some possible reasons, such as: the function of the intensifiers employed by both NNSs and NSs; the nature of the German's culture, which tends to overstate issues; the lack of lexical intensity... etc.

Quirk et al. (1985) distinguished between two main categories that show the writer's degree of commitment. These two categories are amplifiers (e.g., maximizers and boosters) and downtoners (e.g., approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers-negative maximizers). Amplifiers are qualifiers or word intensifying expressions that reinforce the significance of adjacent expressions and show accentuation. Words that are usually used as intensifiers may include some adverbs, such as *completely* and *really*. In her attempt to distinguish between the boosters and maximizers, Granger (1998) defines maximizers as the words that show the highest degree whereas boosters show only a relatively high degree. If these intensifiers were ordered and distributed on an inverted triangle according the degree of emphasis, the maximisers sit at the top and the minimizers at the bottom (see figure 8). However, downtoners are words or expressions, which weaken the power of another word or expression. Downtoning is the inverse of stressing. The part of speech, which downtoners go under, is an adverb and they usually precede verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. For example, when someone says *I am a little bit bored*, this sentence is less strong than when someone says *I am bored*. According to Quirk's categorization, the overstating is expressed by the amplifiers that show the positive emphasis using emphatic devices while the downtoners are used to show the writer's caution. This caution is one the features that distinguishes the native speakers' writing. Contrary to this hypothesis, Lorenz (1998) found that NNSs (German students) used both the downstatement and overstatement devices more than NSs.

### 2.4.3 The distribution of hedges over sections

When reviewing literature, it was easily discerned that hedges are not equally distributed over the different sections of the academic papers and this could be attributed to the variety of communicative functions achieved by each section (Hyland, 1994; Salagar-Meyer, 1994). Both Hyland and Salagar-Meyer found that the least number of hedges is found in the 'Methodology' section, while the 'Discussion' section is the richest in hedges because this section is usually full of claims and discussions of findings. To reach this conclusion, Salagar-Meyer (1994) ran a study on 15 articles extracted from 5 medical journals. She detected all hedging markers in each section of the research papers (RP) and divided them into five categories as mentioned earlier. After that, she quantified the hedging markers in each section and calculated the ratio of these markers to the total number of the running tokens of each paper. She found that the most frequent hedge categories are *approximators*, *compound hedges* and *shields*. These three categories represented 90% of hedges used in all papers. Similarly, Rezanejad, Lari, and Mosalli (2015), in their efforts

to quantify the intensity of hedging markers in the different sections of their corpora, found that, in the native speakers' corpus, the section of 'Results and Discussion' has more hedges than the 'Introduction and Literature Review', while the latter section, in the non-native's corpus, has more hedges than the former. However, Nasiri (2012) found that both native and non-native authors used hedges in the 'Discussion' section almost equally. Rezanejad, Lari, and Mosalli (2015) also found that native speakers used 992 hedging devices in total while non-native used 624 devices. This finding is in line with Yang (2013) and Samaie et al. (2014). Additionally, they all found that shields are the most frequent hedges in both native and non-native corpora. This finding is in line with Getkham (2011) and Nasiri's (2012) who found that modal auxiliaries (categorized as shields) were the most frequent devices.

This distribution could be quantified in this current study, but only in the non-native corpus, as the native corpus is not divided into sections. This lack of section division makes it difficult to hold a comparison between the densities of hedging markers in the different sections of both corpora, but the researcher overcomes this obstacle by comparing his findings to the other studies that discussed the same feature. This comparison may not be perfect or yield accurate results due to the different sizes of the corpora being compared.

## 2.5 Modality

As mentioned before, the advent of computer and corpus analysis has enabled scholars to investigate some areas of languages that were previously difficult for them to explore (Leech, 1998). One of these areas is modal auxiliaries. Modality is usually connected with modal auxiliaries even though there are many other forms that would do the same function of modals, for example, modality could be expressed by some adverbs, such as *probably* and *possibly*; some verbs would also serve as modals, such as *I think* and *I feel* (Aijmer, 2002). The reason behind the increased popularity of modal auxiliaries among learners is that they provide them (i.e. learners) with a wide variety of options to express modal meanings, whether epistemic or non-epistemic (Simon-Vandenberg & Aijmer, 2007). The previous studies, which were not based on corpus analysis, showed that non-native speakers tend to overuse or underuse certain modal auxiliaries/meanings (Hinkel, 1995). Aijmer (2002) used a computer-aided approach to compare between argumentative writings produced by Swedish L2 and English natives. What distinguishes her study is that she did not only compare between the Swedish L2's writing and native English



speakers' writing, but she also held a comparison to the writing of other languages (i.e., French and German) regularly. She aimed from this pronged comparison to know whether the errors made by the Swedish writers are due to the interference of L1 (Swedish) or to the commonality of these errors among L2 language learners. Aijmer did not confine her investigation to modal auxiliary, but she also included other forms of modals that do the same function of modality, such as adverbials and lexical verbs. Aijmer concluded that all L2 writers tend to overuse the modal verbs, which could be attributed to their lack of knowledge of the L2 language or to L1 transfer. This universality of findings might be wrong because it is difficult to generalize findings based on exploring two or three languages.

Due to the significance of modality in the English language, there have been many studies that analysed the different modal verbs and how they could be used to serve as root and epistemic modals (Holmes, 1988; Vázquez-Laslop, 2000; Papafragou, 2006). Learners sometimes find it difficult to choose the correct modal verb in a certain context. Sometimes, it is also very confusing to use one modal verb with a certain function and to use the same modal to serve a different function (Parrott, 2000). According to Papafragou (2006) epistemic modality is defined as the “assessment of probability and predictability”. Aijmer (2002) used “degrees of likelihood” to explain the meaning of epistemic modality while root or deontic modality refers to the degree shown by the writer to express obligation, ability, power of deciding (volition), necessity, permission and necessity. Root modality has been referred to by many researchers, using different titles; for example, Halliday (2014) refers to root modality as modulation. Some went further than that and divided root modality into deontic and dynamic. Van Linden (2011) developed a tripartite classification of modal verbs: deontic, dynamic and epistemic modals. After exploring the literature of the categorization of modality, Van Linden (2011) interestingly summarized the whole literature pertaining to the categorization of the modality as shown in diagram 3.

Diachronically, epistemic modality is derived from deontic modality, for example, when children start learning modals they learn first the deontic meaning and then move on to the epistemic one (Besga, n. d.). Although the deontic meaning of some modals is more frequent than the epistemic one, the epistemic meaning of other modals is more frequent than the deontic meaning (Kennedy, 1992).

**Figure 4** Van Linden's summary of the literature of the categorization of Modality

Nuyts, 2005, 2006		Palmer 2001		Coates 1983	Bybee et al. 1994	Van der Auwera and Plungian 1998
dynamic	volition	event modality	volitive	volition	volition	
	participant-inherent		abilitive	ability	ability	participant-internal
	participant-imposed			necessity; root possibility	necessity; root possibility	participant-imposed
	situational			?	?	with part.
	deontic	propositional modality	?	obligation; permission	obligation; permission	?
	directive		deontic			deontic
	epistemic		speculative; assumptive	non-inferential	epistemic	epistemic
evidential	inferential (reasoned)		deductive	inferential		
	hearsay; experiential	evl.	reported; sensory			
boulomaic						

Van Linden (2011)

## 2.6 Bundles

As mentioned earlier, these words, which usually occur together, have been given different titles such as clusters, bundles and multi-word expressions. This sequence of words helps us to identify the different registers, for example, *as can be discerned* refers to academic field and a bundle like *in pursuance of* refers to a legal document. The more proficient the writers become, the more bundles will be incorporated in their texts (Haswell, 1991). Wray (2002) suggests that these formulaic patterns are overlooked in language acquisition. This point should be considered by language teachers and curriculum designers. It is worth mentioning that these collocations can help to strengthen the relationship between the receiver of the text and sender because the presence of certain collocations helps the reader to know the register of the text. They help to reduce the time used by the reader to process the information because he/she is familiar with the words of these collocations. They can also help the reader to know whether collocations used in a text suite the context. For example, the presence of a collocation like *as can be seen* helps the reader to know that the register is academic writing because it is more formal and has no personal pronoun (Hyland, 2008). There are many variations of the just one collocation, but which one is to be used in a specific context is constrained by the reader's expectations and genre of the text (McKenny, 2006; Hyland, 2008). The main motive behind using familiar phrases, which are expected by the reader, is that the writer does not intend to complicate the language, but to make it easily understood. The pervasiveness of such a phenomenon in writing has made some researchers to

propose that grammar is the output of these phrases. In other words, people can recall the language that they have memorized when they were exposed to different texts that contained this language, so grammar rules are extracted from these patterns and not vice versa (Sinclair, 1991; Hoey, 2005). Similarly, Hyland (2008) concludes that when we produce an utterance or write a text, we formulate the words in the same way we first saw them in a previously read text. The ubiquity of chunks has also been stressed by Biber, Johansson & Leech (1999) who estimate that in every one million words, there are 60,000 compound expressions.

### 2.6.1 Collocational frame (It is ... that)

Learners need to be equipped with the hedging devices that help them to strike “a balance between authority and concession” (Poos & Simpson, 2002, p. 4). As mentioned earlier in the literature review, in order for interlocutors to show their precision or imprecision, there are many approaches that they can use such as hedging markers or intensifiers (amplifiers and downtoners). What distinguishes an expert writer from an apprentice is the ability to vary the degree of precision to the extent that suites the context. Whether the interlocutor is hedging or boosting, his/her main objective is to comment on the proposition given by him/her. This comment could show how he/she feels towards what he/she is writing. This feeling could be related to the likelihood, the desirability or the seriousness of a proposition (Lemke, 1998). One of the evaluative forms that Lemke (1998) studied was the sentences that include *It is...that*. Lemke (1998) explained the use of *that* as a conjunction comes before a noun clause, whereas the extraposed *it is* precedes an adjective. This adjective could fall into one of seven semantic classes (probability, appropriateness, importance, seriousness, etc.). These adjectives are, in essence, evaluative epithets. He added that the noun clause that is introduced by *that* could represent a proposition or fact (if *realis*-) or a possibility (if *irrealis*). Lemke (1998) admits that there is similarity between his model of Evaluative Semantic Classes and Halliday’s (1985) Semantic Domain of Modality. The most interesting part of Lemke’s model is how he distinguished between the following two evaluative semantic dimensions:

*It is important that X comes* (proposition)

*It is important that X is coming* (proposal)

The first example is evaluating a proposition. The interlocutor is suggesting that, as he/she sees the situation, it is important for X to come. This is irrealis which means that the action has not happened yet. However, in the second sentence, the interlocutor knows that X could be on his/her way to the place, so he asserts that X's coming is very important. The second example represents the realis case. There is a variety of forms that this collocational frame could take, for example:

*It + verb to be (functioning as a copula) + evaluative epithets (adjectives) + that...*

Or

*It + passive voice (to be + past participle) + that...*

These evaluative forms are very important for the study as the researcher examines them in both corpora and finally deducts some findings about their use, frequencies and varieties.

## **2.7 Lexical and functional words**

There are two classes of words: lexical (also referred to as content or substantive words) and functional words. The former includes these words that carry meaning such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions (eds. Corver & Van Riemsdijk, 2001). They are also referred to as open-class category because it is possible for this category to be extended indefinitely by adding more items to it (Hinojosa et al., 2001). This idea can be supported by the fact that new words are coined and added to dictionaries almost every day. The second category includes the functional words, which is considered a closed-class list because there is a specific number of them and it is rare that new words are added to them. They serve as the mortar that sticks lexical words together (eds. Corver & Van Riemsdijk, 2001). When counting the elements that could be added to the functional word list, Hinojosa et al. (2001) mentioned conjunctions, determiners, pronouns and prepositions. If the readers just go a few lines up, they will find that prepositions were counted among the lexical words by Corver and Van Riemsdijk (eds. 2001). This discrepancy in the categorization corroborates the fact that the distinction between these two categories is not easy because some lexical words would serve as functional words and vice versa. Richards and Schmidt (2010) argue that content (lexical) words include nouns, verbs, adjective and adverb while functional words include conjunctions, articles, and prepositions. This supports the idea of categorization discrepancy.

## 2.8 Corpus linguistics definition and potential

Granger (2002) states that corpus linguistics and second language research were two different fields, but with the advent of the new branch of knowledge known as learner corpus research in the 1980s, these two branches have been linked together. This new methodology has enabled researchers to explore different areas of language and make recommendations for better ways of learning a second language.

Corpus linguistics is defined as the analysis of electronic collections of authentic texts (i.e., naturally occurred). This authenticity feature was also mentioned by Halliday (2004) as he enumerated three advantages and one disadvantage of corpus analysis. One of these advantages is that corpus enabled scholars to study grammar quantitatively. This quantitiveness is based on the ability of researchers to count the frequency of language items in texts (Granger, 2002).

Corpus linguistics is not a new method because it has been there for a long time, but with the advent of computers, this branch of study has enabled scholars to explore some areas that were very difficult to investigate without this magnificent device. The same idea of the added advantage of computers has been raised by Stubbs (1996, p. 232) as he said, “the heuristic power of corpus methods is no longer in doubt”. Although the focus of the corpus based studies, conducted over the past two decades, was only one the features of the native English speaker, such as describing the registers and different dialects of Americans, British and Australians, this trend did not last for long as the focus had also been directed to non-native English. This change of focus started in the 1980s and the material collected from non-native English has been called learner corpora (Granger, 2002).

Halliday (2004, p. 29) also defined corpus as “a large collection of instances — of spoken and written texts”. He added that the two main inventions that radically changed the work of grammarians are tape recorders and computers as the former was used to record the spoken discourse and the latter for saving the written texts. He continues to say that in the 1950s, when the two American scholars Randolph Quirk and W. Freeman Twaddell, started analysing their first corpus manually, they realized that the whole process would be computerized soon. Similarly, Schmitt (ed. 2002) asserts that corpus analysis has recently gained significant popularity for two reasons: first, it focuses on the real language (spoken or written) produced by people; secondly, its outcomes can help in designing curricula.

## **Chapter Three: Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this section of the dissertation, the methodology used in compiling and choosing the corpora is described. This study focuses on the hedging markers used in non-native and native English academic writing produced by postgraduate students. The non-native corpus is called the BUiD corpus and the control corpus is BAWE (British Academic Written English). The first part of this section consists of the reasons for choosing these two modules for hedging markers analysis. It also includes some background data about the participants, such as their gender, native language and the countries they hail from. Part two focuses on the process of compilation, such as converting text to certain formats to be uploaded to corpus analysis software and securing permission for using the students' written assignments. The last part concerns the major process of contrasting and analysing the two corpora. It also touches upon some of the results extracted from this analysis.

### **3.2 Participants**

The participants of this study are students joining Master of Education programme, TESOL concentration. Each student has to study six modules (three elective and three core). The core modules are 'Teaching and Learning', 'Research Methods in Education' and 'Educational Policy'. The elective modules are 'Discourse for Language Teachers', 'TESOL Syllabus and Design', and 'Second Language Teaching and Learning'. The final written assignments, which were submitted to one of the core modules (i.e., Research Methods in Education) and to one elective module (i.e., TESOL Syllabus and Design), were uploaded to the corpus analysis software to be analysed. These two modules were carefully selected for the following reasons. First, the main question of this study is to find the frequency and quality of hedging devices used by the BUiD's students and comparing this frequency and quality to that of the BAWE writers. In 'Research Methods' module, students are required to write a research proposal while in 'TESOL Syllabus and Design' students are required to critically evaluate some syllabi. Therefore, in both modules students are expected to criticize the existing teaching material and methodology or to convince their study supervisor or funding institutions of the validity of their proposals. The total number of students that participated in this study is 70, who combined submitted 90 assignments. The number of assignments exceeds the number of students because some of them (20 students) submitted one assignment to each of the two modules. The majority of the participants are Arabs (85%) and 15%

are from other nationalities, such as Indian (6%), British (2%), Bangladeshi, French, Nigerian and Pakistani with 1% each. The British participants were not raised in Britain, but were naturalized when they were adults. Finally, both genders were almost equally represented, as the male participants was accounted for 55% and female participants 45% of the study group.

**Table 2** Nationalities of the participants

No	Nationality	# of this nationality	%		No	Nationality	# of this nationality	%
1	American-Palestinian	1	1		10	Lebanese	2	3
2	Bangladeshi	1	1		11	Moroccan	1	1
3	British	2	2.8		12	Nigerian	1	1
4	Egyptian	12	17		13	Omani	4	6
5	Emirati	7	9.8		14	Pakistani	1	1
6	French	1	1		15	Palestinian	3	4
7	Indian	6	8		16	Syrian	6	8
8	Iraqi	7	10		17	Tunisian	1	1
9	Jordanian	14	21		Total		70	

% Arabs	% Non-Arabs
85	15

**Table 3** Gender of the participants

Female	Male
39	32
55%	45%

Ninety assignments were submitted to two modules - Research Methods in Education & Syllabus Design - between 3,000 and 4,000 words in length and with about 300,000 words in total. This number decreased to less than 300,000 when the text was formatted and converted to a text-only version, which is the appropriate format that can be uploaded to corpus analysis software.

**Table 4** The two assignments' details

Assignment title	# of assignments submitted	# of words in each assignment	Total # of words
Research Methods in Education	56	3000	$56 * 3000 = 168000$
Syllabus Design	34	4000	$34 * 4000 = 136000$
Total	90	7000	304000

### 3.4 Education system of the experimental students (BUiD students)

Most of the students whose written assignments make up the experimental corpus (BUiD corpus) are Arabs. The system of education in the Arab world is somehow similar to the British system. There are many schools in the United Arab Emirates, which adopt the British curriculum and American curriculum, but most schools follow the Ministry of Education system. Pupils begin school when they reach six years old and carry on for 12 years. These years are divided into three main stages: the primary (6 years) and preparatory (3 years) and finally the secondary stage (3 years) (Gaad, 2001). After attending 12 years in pre-tertiary education, students can join the university for four years to attain their bachelor degrees. Students cannot go for a Master degree without having a bachelor degree. Throughout the 12 years in the pre-university stage, students are usually taught grammar and English in a didactic method and they sometimes end up with just memorising grammar rules without any focus on the function of these syntactic devices. Currently, there is a shift towards argumentative writing, which is one of the main components of the IELTS test. This test has become one of the most important pre-requisites for joining postgraduate studies in almost all universities in the United Arab Emirates. The researcher is an Arab and he admits that throughout his educational stages, he has hardly been taught at all how to establish a balance between certainty and uncertainty or how to be less dogmatic. He started to learn that skill only when he did his postgraduate studies.

### 3.5 Contrasting and analysing the two corpora

According to Granger (2002) contrastive interlingual analysis includes the two following types:



### 1) The NS/NNS

In this type, the contrast is held between writing features in both native (control) and non-native (experimental) English. The main concerns related to this type are the different varieties of native languages, such as the different dialects, spellings and the level of professionalism (Lorenz, 1999) of these native people whose writing form the body of the control corpus. McKenny (2006) stressed that for the two corpora to be successfully compared, the number of words and the purposes for which the texts of both corpora were written should match. This condition is met in this current study as both corpora have the same length and their texts are written to serve the same purpose. Contrasting native and non-native writing makes it possible to spot not only the misuse of some language features, but it also enables linguistics to determine the overuse and/or the underuse of some specific features when compared with native writing as a reference.

### 2) NNS/NNS

Comparing the writings of learners with different nationalities makes it possible to discover the strategies that are common among all learners or those that are confined to a specific group of learners (Aijmer, 2002), but this type of comparison is beyond the scope of this study.

## 3.6 Motive behind writing and corpus compilation

McKenny (2006) ascertains that most of the texts in the native language corpora were compiled for purposes other than corpus analysis. Similarly, BAWE corpus was made up of students' papers, submitted to their modules and not for corpus analysis. Generally, the subjects who contributed to BAWE and BUiD corpora were post-graduate students undertaking their master degrees. However, in BAWE case, students' papers were added to the corpus provided they gained a distinction. In addition, and the authors of the selected papers were paid an amount of money and signed a disclaimer forms so that their universities could use their submitted paper for research purposes.

As for the compilation of the BUiD corpus, all word documents were converted to plain text because most tagging software works perfectly with texts that have no formatting (McKenny, 2006). Since all section headings in the control corpus (BAWE) are encoded as <heading>...</heading>, the researcher did the same thing in the experimental corpus. When the 90 assignments

were joined using the WordSmith tool, each one of these assignments was given a specific number, for example, the first assignment was given the number 11, the second was given the number 22 and the last assignment was given the number 9090. Assigning numbers to each assignment would help the researcher to know in which assignment a specific language feature or concordance occurs.

### **3.7 Control corpus compilation**

In order to obtain a full version of the British Academic Written English corpus, an online application form was completed and sent to the University of Oxford Text Archive. The request was soon approved and the researcher was given a full copy of the BAWE corpus. This corpus was compiled over a period of three years (2004-2007) and it consisted of 2,761 assignments written by students joining three universities; Oxford Brookes, Warwick and Reading (Coventry University, 2016). All these writings were deemed as proficient writings (graded Merit or Distinction) and the authors were predominantly English native speakers (80%) and non-native English speakers (20%) (McKenny, 2006). The length of the texts ranged from 1,000 to 5,000 words. These written texts were classified into four disciplinary groups (DG), which are Arts and Humanities, Life sciences, Physical Sciences and Social Sciences. Then, the texts, submitted to each disciplinary group, were subcategorized into disciplines. Each disciplinary group consists of about 4 to 9 disciplines; for example, Arts and Humanities consists of 8 disciplines including Archaeology, Classics, etc. From all these contributions, the researcher selected texts submitted to Arts and Humanities and Social Sciences DGs. As the experimental corpus consists of assignments submitted to the Master of Education programme, the researcher tried to be very selective and had three main criteria when choosing the texts from BAWE. First, the topic had to be closely related to the educational field, such as English, History, Linguistics, and Sociology. Second, the more argumentative and text-oriented the piece of writing was, the more suitable it was deemed to be included for contrasting. Based on the previous criterion and based on the length of the experimental corpus (300,000), 101 texts were selected from BAWE with 300,000 words in total. All these key issues, such as the length and purpose of writing, should be considered when comparing the two corpora so that the only difference between them would be the level of proficiency and authorial expertise (Ortmeier-Hooper & Newkirk, 2013)

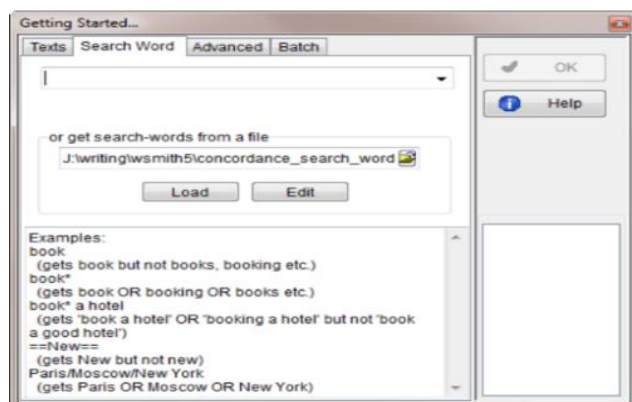
The focus of this study is the assignments written by 70 postgraduate students who undertook their master degrees at the British University in Dubai. The experimental corpus is referred to as the BUiD corpus. The methodology adopted in conducting this research is mainly empirical as it is based on direct observation of certain features in the two corpora (experimental and control). These features and language items have been quantified in the non-native corpus and then compared to the corpus written by native speakers. This method of contrast is called Contrastive Interlingual Analysis. As a starting point, all hedging markers, suggested by Hyland, were typed in a notepad to be searched for in both corpora. Homonyms, which do not serve as hedging markers, have been excluded. In other words, all language items that do not represent the writer's stance or degree of commitment are culled. In this regard, Aijmer (2002) said that sometimes the manual analysis is necessary to avoid disambiguation. The manual filtering of both corpora, in this current study, resulted in deleting some markers that were mistakenly included within the list of hedges generated by WordSmith; for example, the epistemic meaning of the adverb *around* is approximately, but in concordance 1, it was used as a preposition which meant 'in this direction', so it was deleted. In concordance 3, the word '*May*' served as the name of the fifth month of the year and not as a hedge, so it was deleted as well.

Concordance 1: <i>This gives more .....of learning and competing <b>around</b> the world.</i>
Concordance 2: <i>There is ..... <b>about</b> the tendency in .....</i>
Concordance 3: <i>April 2014- <b>May</b> 2014 literature Review .....</i>
Concordance 4: <i>This reflected on .....; I felt helpless and defenseless.</i>

Annotating corpus is another solution to removing disambiguation, for example, tagging the word '*can*' as a modal auxiliary when it serves as a modal and tagging it as a noun when it serves as a noun would help to distinguish between the auxiliary verb *can* and its homonym. To overcome the problem of unneeded language features, the researcher prepared a list of all search-words (hedging markers suggested by Hyland) and uploaded this list to WordSmith (see figure 5 and 6). A list of concordances of search-words was generated. The next step was filtering this list by deleting all irrelevant language markers or the markers that did not serve as hedging devices. Only the devices that showed tentativeness and degrees of un/certainty were included (Hyland, 1994). This step of weeding out devices that did not serve as hedging markers had been neglected by many studies as most of them followed "wanton frequency count" (Poos & Simpson, 2002).

**Figure 5** Filtered concordances in Wordsmith

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Seni	Para	Para	Hea	Hea	Sec	Sec
1	scripts". Hall & Hewing (2001, p. 1) claims that "analysis of content of ESL/	cla		26,841	30	93	0	59			0	9%
2	Association, JINESA (vol. 6, No. 1 May 1970) that the "English language-	me		124,5	4,5	20	12	49			0	44
3	the following research questions: 1-Should vocabulary be instructed in-	sh		120,71	4,7	55	8	79			0	39
4	-stated at the beginning of the study: 1-Should vocabulary be instructed in-	sh		122,51	4,5	69	8	93			0	40
5	manner. For example: Student 1: May I borrow your pen for a little-	me		266,91	10	43	28	43			0	87
6	. Moreover, 'On Location Grade 10' appears to be appropriate for	ap		243,1	9,3	26	22	82			0	79
7	University Press. Chapter 11 would be used from this book for	wo		17,64	30	49	0	39			0	6%
8	learning more. (Stipek, 2002:134) suggests that intrinsic motivation is	su		150,1	5,5	56	14	85			0	49
9	2011) Friend & Bursuck (2002 p. 151) suggests that in a "well organized and	su		42,84	1,1	29	0	94			0	14

**Figure 6** 'Search-words from a file' function

As mentioned in the literature review, Salagar-Meyer (1994) did not develop a list of hedges for her proposed taxonomies, so the researcher referred to other studies to create a list for each taxonomy; for example, while reviewing the work of Hyland (2005a), it was found that the list of hedges entitled 'attitude markers', developed by Hyland, is very similar to the examples of intensifiers suggested by Salagar-Meyer. In the same vein, the researcher referred to the work of Holmes (1988) to create a list of lexical verbs with epistemic meaning. Actually, this list was a merge of Holmes (1998) and Hyland's (2005a) lists. Generally, most of these lists, used to search for concordances of Salagar-Meyer's taxonomies, were created in a similar way, i.e., merging the lists of hedges developed by other researchers to create one list for each taxonomy.

### 3.8 Ethical consideration

An email containing the research objectives and methodology was sent to all potential participants to secure their consent to participate in this study. Moreover, their anonymity was maintained.

## Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion

### 4.1 The most frequent single words

As a starting point, the 40 most frequent single words were identified and compared in the two corpora (the experimental and control). The researcher started with single words and then moved on to compound forms. This sequence of steps is a representation of the bottom-up approach, which the researcher would like to follow in the beginning. According to Scott and Tribble (2006) the most frequent words are found at the top while the tail of this list is full of hapax legomena. They also ascertain that once the text has been transformed into a wordlist, all the functional words, such as *the* and *of* are sent to the top of this list. As can be seen in table 5 below, the first column contains the serial number of concordances; the second column shows the word itself; the third shows the number of tokens of each type of the words in the whole texts; and the extreme right-hand column shows the percentage of these tokens in texts as a whole. For instance, the word-type *the* has 22,979 tokens, which represents 7.55% of the whole running words in the BUiD Corpus. It can be easily discerned that there is a divergence in the use of the definite article *the* in both corpora: in the BUiD Corpus, the frequency of this article makes up 7.55 % while in BAWE, it represents 6.88%. This finding contradicts McKenny's (2006) conclusions as he reports that the non-native speakers in his study significantly underused the definite article when compared to the native speakers. The definite article usually collocates with nouns. To prove that, when the definite article is searched for in the BUiD corpus, it is found that it collocates with the word STUDENTS 871 times. This finding suggests that there would be an overuse of nouns in NNSs' corpus. This will prove right when the two corpora are tagged with the USAS tagset. As an ESL teacher with many years of experience teaching Arabs, the researcher can assume that the overuse of the definite article is due to its wrong use, which could be attributed to the L1 transfer. The concordance below gives an example of the wrong use of this article.

Concordance 5

*The teacher should work in a UAE university for more than one year. The reason for ..... at the same place ..... that the teacher is well-acquainted with the syllabus. 2. The teacher should ..... The teacher has to be ..... for the study. Non- specialized teachers ..... and this will lead to inaccurate results for the study*

As is expected, the most frequent words on the top of both lists are functional words such as *the*, *and*, *of* and *to*. It is worth mentioning that the top 9 most frequent words are almost the same in the two corpora. It is also interesting to notice that on the experimental list (BUIID Corpus), the first content word comes in the tenth position while there is no one content word among the 40 most frequent words in the reference corpus as all of these 40 most frequent words are functional words. It is equally interesting to notice that frequency of the modal verb *will* is 1,947 while it is only 655 in the BAWE corpus.

**Table 5** The forty most frequent words in both corpora

40 most frequent words in BUIID Corpus				40 most frequent words in BAWE Corpus			
N	Word	Freq.	%	N	Word	Freq.	%
1	THE	22,979	7.55	1	THE	20,781.00	6.88
2	AND	10,281	3.38	2	OF	12,543.00	4.15
3	OF	10,260	3.37	3	AND	9,104.00	3.01
4	TO	9,955	3.27	4	TO	8,271.00	2.74
5	IN	8,056	2.65	5	#	7,801.00	2.58
6	#	5,920	1.94	6	IN	7,042.00	2.33
7	A	5,486	1.8	7	A	6,192.00	2.05
8	IS	4,750	1.56	8	IS	5,010.00	1.66
9	THAT	4,055	1.33	9	THAT	3,511.00	1.16
10	STUDENTS	3,212	1.06	10	AS	3,226.00	1.07
11	BE	2,948	0.97	11	IT	2,321.00	0.77
12	FOR	2,823	0.93	12	FOR	2,182.00	0.72
13	THIS	2,685	0.88	13	BE	2,112.00	0.7
14	AS	2,616	0.86	14	THIS	2,062.00	0.68
15	ARE	2,430	0.8	15	WITH	1,881.00	0.62
16	IT	2,236	0.73	16	ARE	1,672.00	0.55
17	ON	2,113	0.69	17	BY	1,648.00	0.55
18	WILL	1,947	0.64	18	ON	1,643.00	0.54
19	WITH	1,929	0.63	19	NOT	1,553.00	0.51
20	TEACHERS	1,798	0.59	20	WHICH	1,521.00	0.5
21	THEIR	1,721	0.57	21	AN	1,384.00	0.46
22	THEY	1,429	0.47	22	FROM	1,276.00	0.42
23	BY	1,382	0.45	23	OR	1,185.00	0.39
24	LEARNING	1,382	0.45	24	WAS	1,087.00	0.36
25	LANGUAGE	1,358	0.45	25	CAN	993	0.33

40 most frequent words in BUiD Corpus				40 most frequent words in BAWE Corpus			
N	Word	Freq.	%	N	Word	Freq.	%
26	STUDY	1,259	0.41	26	THEIR	968	0.32
27	RESEARCH	1,188	0.39	27	HAVE	907	0.3
28	WHICH	1,123	0.37	28	I	891	0.29
29	NOT	1,115	0.37	29	HIS	852	0.28
30	TEACHING	1,078	0.35	30	BUT	834	0.28
31	HAVE	1,071	0.35	31	HAS	827	0.27
32	AN	1,063	0.35	32	P	813	0.27
33	OR	1,054	0.35	33	AT	800	0.26
34	FROM	1,010	0.33	34	MORE	781	0.26
35	CAN	990	0.33	35	THEY	781	0.26
36	LEARNERS	933	0.31	36	ONE	768	0.25
37	TEXTBOOK	906	0.3	37	HE	698	0.23
38	SCHOOL	872	0.29	38	ITS	660	0.22
39	BOOK	866	0.28	39	WILL	655	0.22
40	TEACHER	846	0.28	40	ALSO	643	0.21

## 4.2 Lexical density

Lexical density is usually used as a measure of the level of proficiency of text. Kenny (1985) developed a technique that is referred to as the type-token ratio (TTR). As the name indicates, the total number of word types is divided by the total number of the running words. Then, the result of this division (i.e. quotient) is converted to a percentage. This technique had a lot of criticism because of its sensitiveness to the length of the text, for example, if a text consists of 10,000 running words, it is said that this text has 10,000 tokens. This dependence on the size of the text is considered one of the limitations of this measure, which could have been firmly accepted if it had excluded the repeated words.

**Table 6** TTR & STTR of the two corpora

Corpus	BUiD	BAWE
<b>Tokens (running words) in text</b>	304409	302121
<b>Tokens used for word list</b>	298489	294320
<b>Types</b>	10904	17607
<b>Type/token ratio (TTR)</b>	3.65	5.98
<b>Standardized type/token ratio (STTR)</b>	37.53	40.54

In his endeavour to overcome the deficiency of the TTR, Scott (1999) developed the standardized type/token ratio by dividing the texts into smaller segments and taking the average of the TTR of

each of the segments. This approach was also criticized for not reflecting the reality of the text lexical density.

In reaction to the limitation of both techniques (i.e., TTR & STTR), scholars started to adopt another tool developed by Ure (1971). In order to measure the density of lexis in a text, Ure tried to find the proportion of the lexical words to the grammatical ones. As recommended by Ure (1971) and Stubbs (1996), the lexical density is calculated by dividing the lexical/content words by the total number of tokens in the corpus. To create a list of content words, the researcher used a stoplist of the 100 most frequent words.

#### **In the BUiD Corpus (using the 100 most frequent words)**

Content words=304,409 (tokens) -143.445 (functional words removed) = 160.964

Lexical density= 160.964 (content words) / 304.409 (tokens) = 52.877 %

#### **In the BAWE Corpus (using the 100 most frequent words)**

Content words=302.121-141.683= 160.438      Lexical density=160.438/302.121= 53.103%

**Table 7** Lexical density using a stoplist of the 100 most frequent words

<b>Corpus</b>	<b>BUiD</b>	<b>BAWE</b>
<b>Lexical density using stoplist</b>	52.877%	53.103%

The percentages in the table 7 suggest that the lexical density of the native speakers' corpus is slightly higher than the non-native's. This is not a surprising finding for the researcher because he expected that the lexical density of BUiD would be less than BAWE, because he is an Arab and was educated in an Arabic country where teaching is mainly grammar-oriented. However, the high lexical density is not evidence of the full command of the language as there are native speakers whose writing is not highly lexically dense (Meunier, 1998). In addition, the categorization of a text into lexical and functional items is not easy because some lexical words work as grammatical words and vice versa (Hunston and Francis, 2000). In other words, the function of each category (lexical and grammatical) may overlap.



### 4.3 Hyland's taxonomy

As mentioned earlier in the methodology section, all hedging markers (101), suggested by Hyland (2005a), were typed in a notepad and searched for in both corpora using the function of 'get search-word from a file' in the corpus analysis software called 'WordSmith'. When adding all totals of hedging adverbs, verbs, adjectives, modal auxiliary and compound hedges, it was found that, generally, the NSs used more hedges than NNS; 4,022 (1.33%) hedges and 3,251 (1.07%) hedges, respectively.

**Table 8** Hedges according to Hyland Taxonomy

Part of speech	BUiD	BAWE
Hedging modal auxiliary	1661	1617
Hedging adverbs	723	1096
Hedging verbs	691	1026
Hedging adjectives	94	200
Adverbial phrase	66	50
Hedging noun	11	20
Noun phrase	5	13
Total	3240 (1.07%)	4002 (1.33%)

**Table 9** Expected contingency in both Corpora of Hyland's hedges

Part of speech	BUID	BAWE
Hedging modal auxiliary	1460.29	1803.73
Hedging adverbs	810.334	1000.91
Hedging verbs	764.895	944.787
Hedging adjectives	130.972	161.775
Adverbial phrase	51.6761	63.8295
Hedging noun	13.81	17.0579
Noun phrase	8.0187	9.90458

Chi-square= 3.14

Degree of freedom (df) = (C-1) (r-1) = (2-1) (7-1) = (1) (6) = 6

Probability= .05

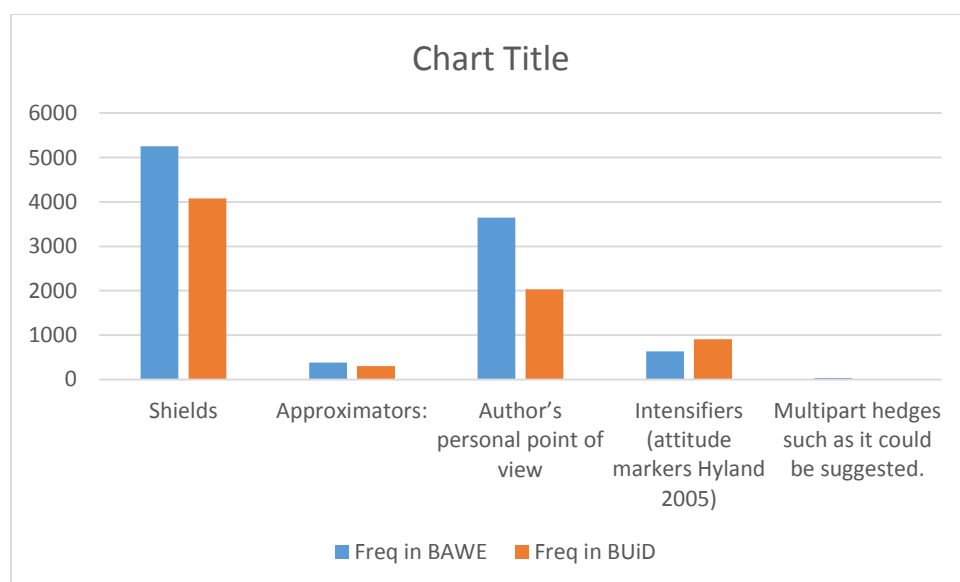
Based on the Chi square results, there is a likelihood that there would be a statistically significant difference between the frequencies of the hedging markers in the two corpora. Looking closely at the frequencies of hedging markers in both corpora, it can easily be discerned that NSs employed

more adverbs of probability than NNSs, especially, the adverb '*perhaps*' which was used 81 times by NSs while the NNSs used it only 8 times. Similarly, adverbs like '*possibly*', '*likely*', '*roughly*' were far underused by the NNS (see appendix 5).

#### 4.4 Salagar-Meyer's taxonomy

When applying Salagar-Meyer's (1994) proposed taxonomy of hedging markers, which consists of five categories, it was also found that native speakers, overall, used more hedging devices than non-native speakers; 9,945 (3.37% of the total number of words) and 7,324 (2.42%), respectively (see table 10). The two most frequent types of hedges in both native and non-native speakers' corpora are *shields* and *author's personal point of view*. These two types accounted for 52.81% and 36.65% of the total number of hedges used by native speakers whereas they constituted 55.68% and 27.73% of the total number of hedges used by non-native speakers (Rezanejad, Lari & Mosalli, 2015). The native speakers exceeded the non-native speakers in the frequency of the *shields*, *approximators*, *author's personal point of view* and *compound hedges*. The order of the hedge types in both corpora is the same as *shields* come in the first place and *Author's personal point of view* come in the second place followed by *intensifiers*, *Approximators* and *compound hedges*.

**Figure 7** Hedges in BAWE & BUiD (using Salagar-Meyer's taxonomy)



**Table 10** Salagar-Meyer's proposed taxonomy of hedging markers found in BAWE and BUiD

Category	BAWE			BUID		
	Freq	Percentage of this category to the total # of token	Percentage of this category to the total # of hedges	Freq	Percentage of this category to the total # of token	Percentage of this category to the total # of hedges
<b>Shields</b>	5252	1.8	52.81	4078	1.35	55.68
<b>Approximators:</b>	381	0.13	3.83	303	0.1	4.14
<b>Author's personal point of view</b>	3645	1.22	36.65	2031	0.67	27.73
<b>Intensifiers (Similar to attitude markers developed by Hyland 2005a)</b>	632	0.21	6.35	904	0.3	12.34
<b>Compound hedges such as <i>it could be suggested.</i></b>	35	0.01	0.35	8	0	0.11
<b>Total</b>	<b>9945</b>	<b>3.37</b>		<b>7324</b>	<b>2.42</b>	

**Table 11** Expected contingency in both Corpora

Category	BAWE	BUID
<b>Shields</b>	5373.03	3956.97
<b>Approximators:</b>	393.907	290.093
<b>Author's personal point of view</b>	3268.74	2407.26
<b>Intensifiers (Similar to attitude markers developed by Hyland 2005a)</b>	884.563	651.437
<b>Compound hedges such as <i>it could be suggested.</i></b>	24.7632	18.2368

Chi-square= 1.9 &gt; 0.05

Degree of freedom (df) = (C-1) (r-1) = (2-1) (5-1) = (1) (4) = 4

Probability= 0.05

Based on Chi-square result, there is a significant difference between NS and NNS in their use of hedges. Generally, this taxonomy (i.e. Salagar) is problematic, especially, the category of

intensifiers which was described by Koutsantoni (2007) as vague and function as attitude markers more than as hedges. Based on this conclusion, the researcher used Hyland's list of attitude markers as intensifiers. This vagueness and lack of a list of lexical items led to a discrepancy in the counts of intensifiers calculated when Salager-Meyer (1994) and Quirk et al.'s (1985) models were applied.

#### 4.5 Syntactic and semantic tagging

The researcher also used Wmatrix3 to identify the variety of parts of speech used in both corpora. The two corpora were uploaded to the Wmatrix3 tool and tagged with the UCREL CLAWS7 tagset. The main motive behind this step was to find whether the non-native speakers in the experimental corpus overused or underused some parts of speech. It is clear that NNSs used more verbs, nouns and fewer adverbs and adjectives than NSs (see table 12). This finding is almost in line with Ringbom (1998) who found that NNSs corpus included more verbs and fewer adjectives than NSs'.

**Table 12** Parts of speech in both corpora

Total number	BUiD	%	BAWE	%
Verbs	53713	18.64	46476	16.14
Noun	84837	29.41	80320	27.89
Adverb	9998	3.42	13788	4.77
Adjective	23094	8	27555	9.56
Total	<b>171642</b>	<b>59.47</b>	<b>168139</b>	<b>58.36</b>

The researcher was looking for the devices and parts of speech that were used to show tentativeness or degree of commitment. According to the CLAWS7 tagset, *VM* stands for modal auxiliary (e.g., can) and that was the first target for the researcher. Searching the tagged lists of the two corpora, where O1 stands for observed frequency in the BUiD corpus and O2 stands for observed frequency in the BAWE corpus, *VM* was the thirteenth item on the list (see table 13).

**Table 13** Parts of speech-CLAWS tagset

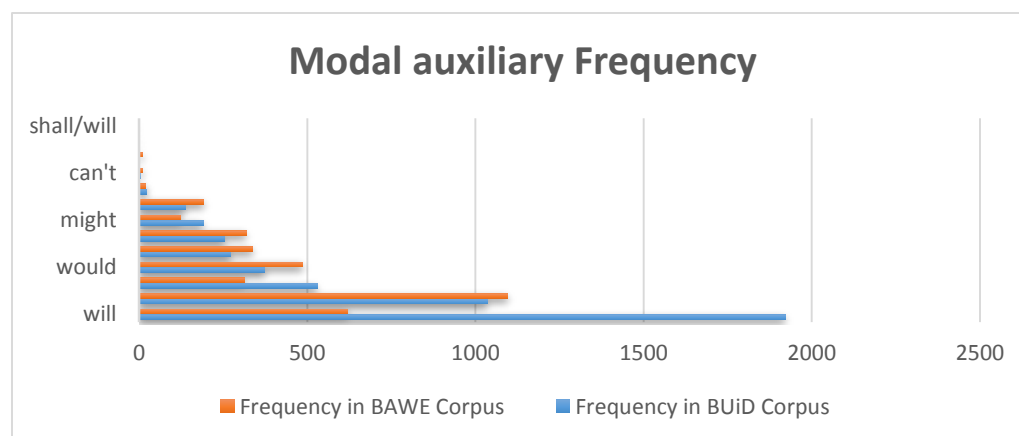
Sr no	Item	O1 (BUiD)	%	O2 (BAWE)	%		LL	Logratio
1	NN2	27735	9.62	16877	5.86	+	2667.5	64.31
13	<b>VM</b>	<b>4748</b>	<b>1.65</b>	<b>3533</b>	<b>1.23</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>178.7</b>	<b>34.37</b>

Modal auxiliaries have significant importance, as their proper use by non-natives is considered to be a challenge. They are also important devices used by the writer to show tentativeness or hedging (Coates, 1983). For these two main reasons, the researcher decided to investigate modal auxiliaries in both corpora. It is clear from table 13 that BUiD students overused the modal auxiliaries as there are 4,748 occurrences of them, which represent 1.65% of the total words in BUiD while BAWE students used them 3,533 times, which represent 1.23% of the total words in BAWE. These numbers are different from Hyland's because Hyland's list of modal auxiliaries did not include *can* and *will*. This finding (i.e., the overuse of modal auxiliaries by non-native speakers) necessitates having a deeper look at the different modal auxiliaries and investigating them individually to find the reasons behind this tendency.

**Table 14** Frequency of modal auxiliaries

Word	Frequency	Relative Frequency	Frequency	Relative Frequency
	in BUiD Corpus		in BAWE Corpus	
will	1921**	0.67	620	0.22
can	1035	0.36	1097	0.38
should	530*	0.18	313	0.11
would	374	0.13	486	0.17
may	273	0.09	338	0.12
could	255	0.09	319	0.11
might	191*	0.07	125	0.04
must	137	0.05	192	0.07
shall	23	0.01	20	0.01
can't	4	0	11	0
need	2	0	10	0
can_not_stand	2	0	2	0
Shall/will	1	0	0	0
Total	<b>4748</b>	<b>1.65</b>	<b>3533</b>	<b>1.23</b>

**Figure 8** Modal auxiliary frequencies



Examining the frequency of the modals, it was found that *will*, *can*, *should* and *might* were overused by NNSs while *would*, *may*, *could*, *must*, *shall*, *can't* and the semi-modal *need* were underused. In the BUiD corpus, the modal auxiliary *will* came in the first place with the highest number of frequencies (1,921 times) followed by *can* with 1,041 occurrences while in the BAWE corpus, the order is reversed where *can* occupied the first place with 1,097 occurrences and *will* the second place with 620 occurrences. Generally, within the global list of BUiD, it is the modal verb *will* that mostly stands out because BUiD students used this modal almost three times as often as BAWE students. This overuse could be attributed to either L1 transfer (interlingual), developmental factors, or speech-like writing (viz, students' writing is affected by the way they speak, i.e., register-interference). The last reason needs to be supported by referring to an Arabic corpus where this feature of modality can be checked. Another reason, I would suggest, could be that in one of the modules, *Research Methods*, students were requested to write a research proposal, and so they used the word *will* many times to talk about their plans even though the present simple could have been used to express future planned activities. For example, one of the students was discussing the approvals that he would get to be able to run his study said, "*an approval on the study will be obtained from the HCT research*"; someone else who was explaining the stages of his research said "[t]he first stage will involve questionnaires to be collected". A final potential reason for the overuse of *will* by NNSs is that it is teaching-induced. It has also been noticed that NSs used *may*, *could* and *would* (modals mainly express probability) more than NNSs. This could be attributed to the fact that NSs tend to use these modals when they wish to show their attenuation about their propositions (epistemic stance). Finally, the modal auxiliary *should* is one of the modals that was overused by BUiD students. When the researcher examined the occurrences of *should*, he found that students used this modal mainly to express the ethical code of conduct or norms that usually prevail in teaching and research contexts; for example, "*the teacher should aim to create a suitable psychological atmosphere in order to lower learners' anxiety arising from their increased autonomous roles*". Another student discussing the right of study participants to take part in the study said, "*Participants should be told they have the right to decline involvement in the study*".

#### 4.6 Modals with deontic and epistemic meanings

The next step for the researcher is to find out how many of these modal verbs have deontic meaning and how many have epistemic meaning. As mentioned earlier, the researcher follows the bottom-

up approach when analysing the devices used to express modality. In other words, he starts with analysing the single modal auxiliaries, then the modal adverbials and finally the harmonic modal combinations. Before exploring the different modal auxiliaries, used by both NSs and NNSs, it is important to discuss the root and epistemic meanings of modal verbs. Although there seems to be a unanimous agreement among researchers on the forms of modal verbs that are used to express modality, Coates (1983) and Hermeren (1978) compiled a list of modals other than the one agreed upon by most researchers. They adopted a different technique, which is based on ferreting out the frequency of the various modals. This approach required putting a lot of effort and time because they had to check every single form to find whether it serves the epistemic or root meaning (Holmes, 1988). Each one of the two corpora (used in this current study) consists of about 300,000 words and with this big size of the corpora, the researcher decided to investigate the function (epistemic or root) of only some of the modal. It was also very helpful to refer to Aijmer's (2002) study in which she classified modal auxiliaries as follows: *Must, may, should* and *might* could have both root or epistemic meanings while *have to, must, ought to* and *should* usually serve as root modals; the remaining verbs like *will, would* and *could* usually serve as epistemic devices; the modal verb *will*, in particular, is used to express the future plans, but with some kind of certainty. Although the number of modal auxiliaries is few, it seems to be a challenging task to determine the function of these modals because they are polysemous, for example, *can* is used to express possibility, ability and permission (Kennedy, 2002). In this study, the researcher intends to investigate only the epidemic and root meaning of the modal auxiliary *would*, which would somehow show the preference of native and non-native towards the use of epidemic and root meanings of modal auxiliaries.

**Table 15** 'Would' with root & epistemic meanings

Item			
would	BUiD	BAWE	Root or Epistemic
Would be	135	143	Epistemic
Would better	2	2	Epistemic
Would like	26	11	Root
Would + adverb	28	58	Epistemic
Would +seem/appear/need	3	25	Epistemic

Table 15 above shows all the occurrences of *would*. The epistemic modal *would* followed by *be* was underused by BUiD students as they used it 8 times less than BAWE. The combination of

*would* and verb *to be* was usually followed by an adverb (*would be very useful*), or past participle (*would be given*) or present participle (*would be asking*) or an adjective (*would be ideal*) or prepositional phrase (*would be of great help*). *Would* was mainly deployed in both corpora as the epistemic modal except for some forms, such as *would like* which served as a polite way to request something. BUiD students significantly overused this form, which carries the root meaning of *would*. This finding corroborates the previously proven fact, which suggests that BUiD students tend to hedge less than their counterparts in BAWE. Additionally, the modal verb *would* can be used to express probability or the possibility per se, not to mention adding another lexical verb with epistemic meaning like *appear* or *seem*. This combination strengthens the meaning and shows that the writer is trying to be objective as much as possible. Examining this combination of *would* and some lexical verbs with epistemic meaning like *seem*, *appear*, and *need*, it can be easily discerned that BUiD students significantly underused this combination of double hedging.

#### 4.7 Harmonic and disharmonic combinations of modals and adverbs

Sometimes the modal verbs interplay with other lexical verbs or other parts of speech, which perform the same function of modal auxiliaries (Halliday, 1970; Coates, 1983). For example, the *will certainly* combination of the modal and adverb is considered harmonic because the modal auxiliary *will* is used to denote certainty in the future and the adverb *certainly* strengthens the certainty of the verb *will*. Examining table 16 below, it can be easily discerned that both NNSs and NSs used the harmonic modals *would probably* and *would definitely* equally, but the NSs used *would surely* four times more than the NNSs. Similarly, the combination of *will likely* was used by NSs twice as much as NNS, but the combination of *will most likely* was not seen in the NSs' corpus. Generally, NSs used more combinations than NNSs. Contrary to this finding, Aijmer (2002) concluded that NNSs used more combinations and with different types and she attributed that to either the influence of spoken language or the L1 transfer.

**Table 16** Harmonic and disharmonic of modal interplay

Modals interplay	BUiD	BAWE
<b>Would</b>		
Would probably	2	2
Would surely	1	4
Would definitely	2	2



<b>Will</b>		
Will always	4	5
Will potentially	2	2
Will likely	1	2
Will most likely	3	0
Will hopefully	2	0
<b>Should</b>		
Should always	3	1
Should mainly	0	1
Should truly	0	1
Should frequently	1	0
<b>Can</b>		
Can often	3	1
Can truly	1	0
Can definitely	2	0
Can always	1	0
Can hopefully	1	0
Can certainly	0	3
Can potentially	0	2
Can usually	0	2
Can really	0	1
Can simply	0	2
Can hardly	0	3
Can actually	0	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>35</b>

## 4.8 Intensifiers

In this current study, the researcher could identify these intensifiers (adverbials of degree) using the Semantic Tag function and USAS (UCLER Semantic Analysis System) on Wmatrix3. This tool helps to group word senses together and categorize them according to the generality they lie within (Archer, Wilson & Rayson, 2002). According to USAS tagging, each word within the two corpora is assigned a semantic and syntactic tag. This approach makes it easy to identify the behaviour of words like adverbials of degree. When the semantic tags of the two corpora were juxtaposed, it was found that NNSs underused all of the adverbials of degree except for the approximators. It did not seem wise to conclude that the low count of adverbials of degree implies that non-native speakers' writing was less proficient. In other words, it was too early to judge that low/high frequency stood for low/high proficiency in writing, but it was worth having a deeper

look at the different patterns of adverbials used by both NSs and NNSs and trying to justify their under- or over-use. As can be seen in table 17 below, there is a statistically significant difference in the count of adverbials between NSs and NNSs. The former used some adverbials almost twice as often as the latter, but both NSs and NNSs used maximizers almost equally as there is no significant difference between them with the log-likelihood (LL) = 0.24 which is less than the LL cut-off at 6.63). However, the difference between the frequency of boosters is significant as the LL = 68.97 which is higher than the cut-off value. NNSs are often stigmatized for their overstatement and use of boosters, but in this case, it proves the opposite as the NNSs underused almost all the scalar intensifiers (Quirk et al., 1985).

**Table 17** Adverbials of degree (USAS)

Corpus	Amplifiers		Downtoners			
	A13.2	A13.3	A13.4	A13.5	A13.6	A13.7
	Maximizers	Boosters	Approximators	Compromisers	Diminishers	Minimizers
BAWE	476	1496	189	129**	262**	122**
BUIID	461	1076	195	57	109	53

This finding (i.e., underuse of amplifiers) is congruent with Granger's (1998). In order to find the reason behind this underuse, she added up the total number of tokens of amplifiers (including both maximizers and boosters) and the total number of types of these amplifiers. To her astonishment, she found that NNSs underused both the types and tokens of amplifiers. The low number of types could be expected, as the NNSs, unlike the NSs, do not have a rich language variety at their disposal. However, the second finding, which is the low number of tokens, is surprising as this means that NNSs' language is less emphatic or hyperbolic than NSs. This last conclusion contradicts the well-known thought, which implies that NNSs tend to overstate issues more than NSs (Lorenz, 1999). As mentioned earlier, the findings of this current research, pertaining the tokens and types of the amplifiers (see table 18) found in both corpora, are consistent with Granger's. Therefore, the researcher decided to investigate the frequencies of boosters in the two corpora to find out which boosters the NNSs underused or which ones they did not use at all. Boosters, in particular, were focused on and investigated in detail because they were the main reason of the high frequency of amplifiers in both corpora. When the lists of boosters were compared, it was found that there are 22 types of boosters (with 38 frequencies in NSs' corpus) that were not deployed at all by the non-native speakers (e.g., *remarkably*, *desperately* and

*agonizingly*). As mentioned before, this case of nonexistence of some boosters in the NNSs' corpus could be attributed to the "natural deficiency of non-native vocabulary" (Lorenz, 1999, p. 28). Similarly, most of the boosters, underused by non-native speakers, were a combination of an intensifying adverb ending with the suffix *-ly* followed by an adjective (adv-adj-, e.g., increasingly difficult). This type of adverbial collocations requires high combinatory skill, which is not within the capabilities of the non-native speakers. To counteract this deficiency, NNSs resorted to use all-round/stereotyped boosters that can be used in many contexts, such as *very*. This booster was overused by NNSs as they used it 272 times while NSs used it 187 times only.

**Table 18** Types and Tokens of amplifiers

Amplifiers	Types		Tokens	
	NS	NNS	NS	NNS
Maximizers	32	24 <sup>-</sup>	476	461 <sup>-</sup>
Boosters	50	34 <sup>-</sup>	1496	1076 <sup>-</sup>
Total	82	58 <sup>-</sup>	1972	1537-

Looking closely at the occurrences of some other boosters, it is found that NSs used more complex forms of some boosters than NNSs; for example, *more*, the most frequent booster in both corpora with 531 occurrences in BAWE and 441 in BUiD, was used in compound forms with a sense of a downtoner, such as "*which was no more than a form of collective identity*" and "*the world today is no more than a global triumph of free market*". However, when the researcher examined all the occurrences of *more* in BUiD's corpus (NNSs), no one example of such a complex form was found. Most of, if not all, cases in which *more* was used, were comparisons, such as "*the findings will be more reliable*" and "*to write more details*". This means that NSs have the linguistic competence that enables them to use words in more varied and complex forms than that of the non-native.

In addition to that, in the NSs corpus, with close investigation of the occurrences and contexts in which *more* was used, it was found that most of the cases denoted understating more than overstating. In other words, Wmatrix3 misinterpreted these devices as boosters, but in reality, they were no more than expressions of understatement.

As for the frequencies of *diminishers* and *minimizers*, NSs far exceed the NNSs in the use of these downtoners. This means that NSs were more cautious than NNSs as the former used the downtoners devices to show some kind of vagueness, which is now considered one of the main characteristics of the native speakers' language (Channell, 1994). However, the NNSs used more approximators (195) than NSs (189) (see table 17). Although the difference was not great, it proved that NNSs sounded more tentative than NS.

It is also worth mentioning that NSs' use of compound downtoners far exceeded the NNSs, for example the diminisher *to some extent* was used by the NSs twice as much as the NNSs (11 times and 4 times, respectively). This corroborates the fact that NSs have the ability to form varied and complicated structures of language items, even the hedged ones.

#### 4.9 State of inexactitude

According to Quirk et al. (1985), *sort of* and *kind of* are considered part of the compromisers, but they were not included in the list generated by Wmatrix3 (USAS function), so the researcher decided to search for them using Wordsmith and the results are shown below.

**Table 19** Concordances of sort of in BAWE corpus

Concordances of sort of in BAWE corpus
1. inspiration". The writer takes on a <b>sort</b> of god-like essence as Author
2. of literary production as "a <b>sort of</b> involuntary secretion" described by
3. stitutional change - causes a <b>sort of</b> national reappraisal of institutions
4. ,such as nails, ironworks, a <b>sort of</b> mortar and some kind of candles.
5. to justifiably attribute any <b>sort of</b> idealism to Husserl, the evidence is
6. Scope ambiguityThis is the final <b>sort of</b> ambiguity which is caused by
7. the very heart by a pleasant <b>sort of</b> involuntary helplessness" and yet "
8. things." Correlatively, the same <b>sort of</b> optimism is just as comical
9. had been used to uphold some <b>sort of</b> roof of which just a few pieces
10. the way it is because of some <b>sort of</b> intending or pointing on behalf of
11. posed that "Children use some <b>sort of</b> nonsemantic procedure to
12. Nietzsche an intentional choice, the <b>sort of</b> absolute undecidability
13. offer prior justification for the <b>sort of</b> cognition that can come to know
14. guage barrier, is exactly the <b>sort of</b> reality people with hearing
15. with impairments (Oliver, 1990). The <b>sort of</b> approach which is evident
16. . The inference was that this <b>sort of</b> 'being inside something and looking
17. English (Roach 2000). Thus this <b>sort of</b> group is called tone unit which

**Table 20** Concordances of sort of in the BUiD corpus

Concordances of sort of in BUiD corpus
1. with the receptive skills as a <b>sort of</b> warming up for the productive skills
2. assume that there should be a <b>sort of</b> reconsideration of the number of
3. that's <del>implemented directly from</del> <b>sort of</b> answers <del>which will determine</del>
4. learning L2 and establish some <b>sort of</b> a bridge between both language
5. <del>vidual on the planet has some</del> <b>sort of</b> a gadget that connects him/her to
6. n of the book therefore, such <b>sort of</b> question helped in establishing the
7. <del>establishing ICTs within this</del> <b>sort of</b> perform rather than other people

As can be seen in tables 19 and 20, there are 17 concordances of *sort of* in the BAWE corpus and 7 concordances in the BUiD corpus. Some concordances of *sort of* in the two corpora were culled in order to exclude all the examples, which did not serve as a hedging marker. For instance, in table 19, line number 4 was deleted because the phrase *sort of* in this context was a synonym of *type of* and it did not have the sense of a hedging device (Poos & Simpson, 2002). It is worth mentioning that while the researcher was weeding out the examples of *sort of* in the BAWE corpus, which did not have the sense of a hedge, he did not find it a challenging task. However, when he carried out the same task in the BUiD corpus, it took him more time to distinguish between the examples of both types and meanings of *sort of*, which could induce a kind of unsuitability of the use of these hedges. After weeding out the non-hedging examples of *sort of*, it was found that NSs used this hedge twice as much as NNSs. This finding gives another evidence that NSs tend to show their tentativeness by using these expressions of inexactitude that would invite the reader to take part in the debate being initiated by the writer. In other words, the writer tries to play the role of the reader by judging his/her own stance and determining to what extent he/she (i.e., the writer) is true or false.

#### 4.10 Collocational frame (It is ... that)

As mentioned earlier in the literature review there is a variety of forms that this collocational frame could take, for example:

*It + verb to be (functioning as a copula) + evaluative epithets (adjectives) + that...*

Or

*It + passive voice (to be + past participle) + that...*

These two forms and any other form that represented the writer's stance were searched for in the two corpora on WordSmith, using the collocational frame *it \*\* that*. Then all the concordances that did not represent the writer's stance, were culled using 'Delete' and 'zap' functions in the WordSmith tool. Here are some examples of the culled concordances below. The first example (Concordance 6) was mistakenly included because the tool did not distinguish between the extraposition *it is...that* and any other form that included the adjacent words '*it...that*'; this was the reason for including the first example in the concordances on WordSmith. The second example (Concordance 7) suggests that this student was not aware of the different correct forms of the extraposition and this explains the reason for entering incorrectly the adverb 'clearly' in place of the adjective 'clear', which should have been used here. The other examples contain the pronoun *it*, which functioned as an object for a verb and not as a part of the extraposition collocational frame. Additionally, concordance number 7 represents a case of it-clefted. Figures 9 and 10 represent the number of concordances including the culled concordances.

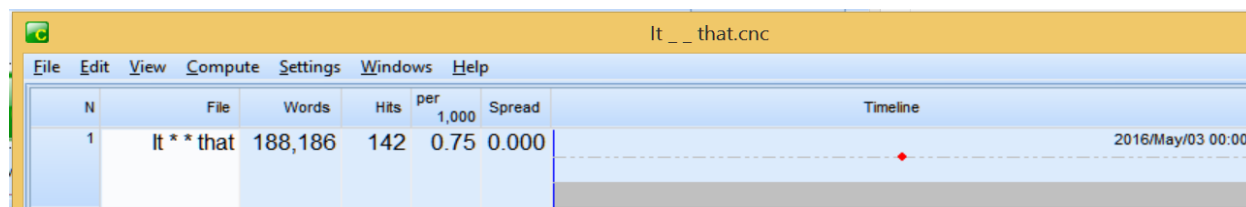
Concordance 6: <i>supported <u>it</u> with diagrams that</i>
Concordance 7: <i><u>It</u> is clearly that through this method</i>
Concordance 8: <i>Define <u>it</u> as "...a process that</i>
Concordance 9: <i>Merely choosing a textbook without first evaluating <u>it</u> would mean that</i>
Concordance 7: <i><u>It</u> is there that he writes</i>

**Table 21** The first 20 concordances of the extraposition 'it\*\*that' in BUiD Corpus

N	Concordance in BUiD	# Words	%
1	interaction in the classroom. <b>It is found that</b> there are actually several weak	4168	99.00%
2	through the different tests. So <b>it is recommended that</b> this contradiction	4012	99.00%
3	appropriate for them. Secondly, <b>it is crucial that</b> the authors would use more	4090	98.00%
4	to make this book more useful <b>it is recommended that:</b> 1) A needs analysis	4160	98.00%
5	forts to reach it. Generally, <b>it is thought that</b> adhering to the supplies of	2392	97.00%
6	impressive and meaningful. <b>It is said that</b> practice makes a man perfect.	3945	97.00%
7	in the textbook. Furthermore, <b>it was found that</b> the dominance of the listening	4227	96.00%
8	unspecified forms in instruction. <b>It was argued that</b> such way will cause	4010	96.00%
9	. 5. Conclusion To conclude, <b>it is clear that</b> whatever is called a paradigm	3878	93.00%
10	reading, and writing. However, <b>it is hypnotized that</b> teachers employ the	3491	93.00%
11	, rank it as totally lacking. <b>It is noticeable that</b> the textbook does not allocate	3472	93.00%
12	rom the result of this study, <b>it is concluded that</b> integrating such aids with	4155	92.00%
13	in a sentence. For all above, <b>it is concluded that</b> the UAE English skills textbook	3836	91.00%
14	ve their progression. Likewise, <b>it was perceived that</b> using of blogs helps	3094	91.00%
15	appendices C & D). Finally, <b>it was noticed that</b> the units' themes are of little	3936	90.00%
16	to the cultural restrictions. <b>It is recommended that</b> this study can be carried	2899	90.00%

17	otions in effective teaching. <b>It is argued that</b> assessment guidelines and	3356	90.00%
18	adictory to this approach. So <b>it is considered that</b> such an an experiment	3777	87.00%
19	listening to writing. Thus, <b>it is important that</b> teachers introduce lessons	3422	87.00%
20	ned the problem faced in UAE. <b>It is evidenced that</b> most of the students	3624	86.00%

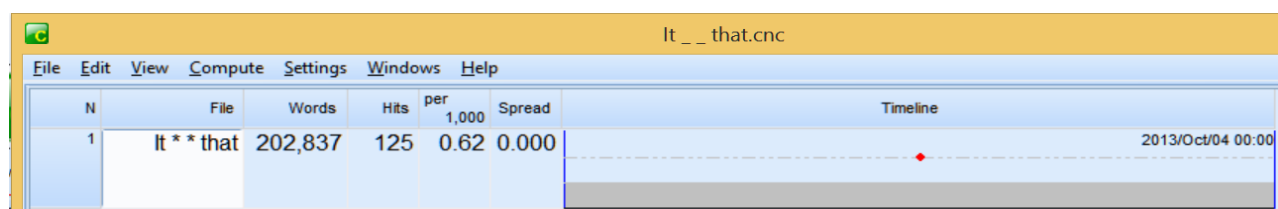
**Figure 9** The timeline of the extraposition it\*\*that in BUiD Corpus



**Table 22** The first 20 concordances of the extraposition it\*\*that in BAWE Corpus

N	Concordance in BAWE	# Words	%
1	Generative Grammar framework, <b>it is likely that</b> the minor differences of perspective	1924	0.99
2	sensitise educators; however <b>it is doubtful that</b> students need to be aware of	3304	0.99
3	s from other genres. However, <b>it is likely that</b> most texts will still aim to be	4029	0.99
4	ace'. Thus, with this in mind <b>it is hoped that</b> with time some inroads may be made	5345	0.99
5	and interrogative sentences. <b>It is certain that</b> this area will present the logician	3225	0.99
6	tak, 1990: 351). In addition, <b>it is poignant that</b> Nisa herself chose the name	4981	0.98
7	very nature of its structure, <b>it seems unlikely that</b> English will be ousted in favour of	1877	0.98
8	biggest ever budget in 1944. <b>It is certain, that</b> before the war had ended	2760	0.96
9	the world. However, although <b>it is true that</b> Musil's descriptions of the Other	5363	0.96
10	. From reading Shostak's text <b>it becomes apparent that</b> it was as much about her	4819	0.95
11	ing styles in modern theatre. <b>It rings true that</b> action is louder than words	3924	0.95
12	s intellectually bankrupt and <b>it is claimed that</b> social identities are created by	2820	0.93
13	lly promoted to children, but <b>it was discovered that</b> it it appealed to both children and	3224	0.91
14	ted to insincere conclusions. <b>It is possible that</b> Bull weighted his analysis in favour of	5954	0.91
15	is the "hypothesis testing". <b>It is assumed that</b> output provides learners with the opportunity	3670	0.9
16	ernet transactions." ( URL ). <b>It is ironic that</b> most of the content available on the Internet	1709	0.89
17	qualsiasi are stressed), and <b>it would seem that</b> if these linguistic alternatives continue	2822	0.87
18	less, as Lyons (1977) argues, <b>it is clear that</b> there are strong semantic associations	1568	0.87
19	th Tyson's 'architect' model. <b>It was recognised that</b> the need for the roles of 'clerk of works'	2926	0.87
20	oncrete groups as they stand. <b>It is clear that</b> whichever scenario is true, the Theban Magical	4208	0.86

**Figure 10** The timeline of the extraposition it\*\*that in BAWE Corpus



NNSs used more extraposed collocational frames than NSs, with usages of 124 and 106, respectively (142 and 125 concordances before culling- see figures 9 and 10). However, the quality, variety and complexity of the structures that come after the expletive *it* in NSs' concordances, are more advanced than NNSs and show how competent the native speakers are. Some of the most advanced expressions used by the NSs are *it is poignant that*; *it is ironic that* and *it is posited that*. None of these adjectives (i.e., *ironic* and *posited*) were used by the NNSs. As can be seen in the tables above, the concordances were sorted by the percentage of frequency of each one of these extrapositions. In BUiD, the extraposition *It is found that* comes in the first place with 99% of the whole texts while the extraposition that occupied the first place in BAWE, is *it is likely that*. The modal adverb *likely* was defined by Salagar-Meyer (1994) as one of the shield markers that hedges the speaker or writer and gives the degree of commitment to the proposition so that this person is protected in case his proposition proves wrong.

Lemke's distinction between strong adjectives (e.g., critical and crucial) and weak adjectives (appropriate and convenient) is not duplicable as the researcher tried to apply his model to the concordances of the extrapositions, found in both corpora, but unfortunately, it somehow did not work, so the researcher started interpreting the meaning of the different adjectives in the extrapositions intuitively as follows.

**Table 23** Examples of adjectives of importance and probability

Adjectives of	BUID Corpus		BAWE Corpus	
	Examples	Frequency	Examples	Frequency
Importance	It is important that	4	It is important that	4
total 1		4		4
Probability			It seems likely that	2
			it seems unlikely that	1
			It is possible that	4
			It seems possible that	1
			it is likely that	2
			it is unlikely that	1
			it is doubtful that	1
total 2		0		12
Total of total		4		16



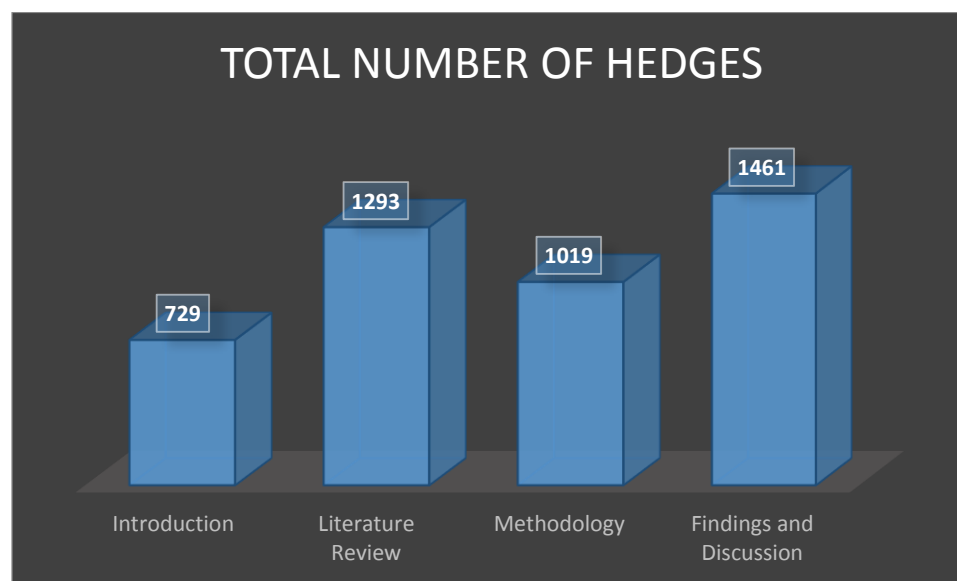
Looking closely at the table 23, it can be easily discerned that NSs used more probability adjectives than NNSs. However, both used the same number of the adjective of importance. The first finding provides further evidence of the fact that NSs tend to show some kind of tentativeness in their writings.

#### 4.11 The distributional pattern of hedges

The distributional pattern of hedges across the different sections of the assignments, written by non-native speakers, was investigated to quantify the number of hedges in each section and to determine whether there was any significant difference between the quantity and the quality of hedges used in each section of the assignments. It was found that the ‘Discussion’ section was the most hedged section as there the writers propose their claims and give their interpretations, which would make them stand out and appear with more credibility (Hyland, 1998). The BUiD students, in this section, used many different devices, but the most frequent was the personal pronoun *I* with 71 occurrences, followed by the adjective *important* with 59 occurrences, followed by the modal auxiliary *would* with 58 occurrences. Additionally, the personal pronoun *we* resides in the fourth place with 51 occurrences. This abundance of personal pronouns corroborates the fact that the students in the ‘Discussion’ section start giving their personal views. The use of the possibility and probability modal auxiliary shows that they give this personal view with some kind of caution. As for the quality of hedges, the writers used a variety of hedges ranging from a single hedging word to a compound hedge. As is clear from the table 24 and figure 11 below, the ‘Discussion’ and ‘Literature Review’ sections were the most hedged sections followed by the ‘Methodology’ and ‘Introduction’ sections.

**Table 24** The distributional pattern of hedges over sections

Section	Total number of hedges
Introduction	729
Literature Review	1293
Methodology	1019
Findings and Discussion	1461

**Figure 11** The distributional pattern of hedges over sections

It has been noticed that the most frequent hedge in the ‘literature review’ section is the modal auxiliary *should*. When the researcher referred to the context in which *should* was used, it was found that BUiD students used it to either report (apparently misinterpreting) what other researchers said or to comment on what they said or to discuss the research or teaching norms that a researcher or teacher should stick to (see concordance 8). This overuse could be attributed to the lack of language proficiency.

Concordance 8: *John Dewey (1916) stated that students should not just have hands-on-activities but they should gain an experience from it.*

In the ‘Introduction’ section, the most frequent hedging devices are these that show the authors’ personal view (viz. *such as* and personal pronoun *I*).

## Chapter Five: Conclusion

The corpus-based methodology has enabled researchers to highlight the peculiarities in the learners' writing and hold a comparison between native and non-native writing (Granger, 2002). One of these features that attracted a great deal of attention is the text interactivity and the different tools that could be employed by the writer to create an open-ended conversation using certain rhetorical tools (Yakhontova, 2002; Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011). Hedging, as a rhetorical or persuasion strategy gained a lot of popularity over the past twenty-five years and numerous scholars conducted studies on how the hedging devices can be used in academic writing (Salager-Meyer, 1994; Hyland, 1996; Kreutz & Harres, 1997; Vassileva, 1997). In this study, the researcher followed a bottom-up approach as he started analysing the individual lexis and grammar units and then moved on to more compound and complicated structures. The first leading finding is the non-native's overuse of the definite article, which is found to be deployed in the wrong structures and contexts. This wrong use is referred to the interference of L1 (i.e., Arabic language) in which the definite article has completely different functions other than those of the English language. The other possible reason, proposed by the researcher, is that it is teaching-induced. This definite article struggle is expected because using the definite and indefinite article is one of the most challenging tasks that confronts the English learners (Torrado Marinas, 2011). Investigating the definite article within the 40 most frequent words list paves the way to a more important point, which is the lexical density in each corpus. It is found that the lexical density of the native speakers' corpus is higher than that of the non-native. However, this finding is of little value for some researchers (Meunier, 1998; Hunston & Francis, 2000) as they believe that the rich lexical text is not an indication of a proficient writing. The researcher referred this low lexical density, in the non-native corpus, to the teaching methodologies applied in the Middle East, as most of these methodologies focus on teaching grammar with little attention to language functions and vocabulary enrichment. This grammar-oriented teaching leads to the next point which is how capable those students (non-native speakers) are in conveying their messages and using some rhetorical tools (e.g., hedges) to engage readers without sounding dogmatic or hyperbolic. To answer this question, two hedging taxonomies or models proposed by Hyland (2005a) and Salager-Meyer (1994) are applied to the two corpora. This application yielded the same result which is that NSs use more hedges than NNSs – 4,022 (19%) and 3,251 (12%), respectively. This finding is in line with Rezanejad, Lari and Mosalli's (2015) study. In fact, the researcher does not stick literally to the model developed

by Hyland and Salagar-Meyer, but he adapted them largely. For instance, the hedging markers suggested by Hyland (2005a) are first searched for in both corpora. Then, the hedging markers found are categorized according to their part of speech, a step that was not taken by Hyland. This categorization yielded six lists – hedging adverbs, hedging verbs, hedging adjectives, hedging modal auxiliaries, hedging phrases and hedging nouns. All these lists include devices that serve as hedges, excluding those that do not have a sense of a hedge. When these lists were analysed, it was found that both NNSs (BUiD corpus) and NSs (BAWE corpus) deploy the same types of hedging markers, but with different frequencies and qualities. The part of speech that comes in first place in both corpora is the modal auxiliaries, which is the only type of hedges that is overused by NNSs. With close investigation of the frequencies of the different modal auxiliaries, it is found that the most frequent modals in the BUiD corpus are *should* (536 times), *would* (376 times), *May* (282 times) and *could* (258 times). However, the order of the most frequent modals in BAWE is as follows; *would* (481 times), *may* (347 times), *could* (319 times) and *should* (315 times).

It is worth mentioning that Hyland's (2005a) model does not include all the modal auxiliaries, such as *will* and *can*. To counteract the deficiency found in Hyland's model, the researcher resorts to Wmatrix3 (corpus analysis software), which can automatically tag every single word in the corpus. After uploading the two corpora to Wmatrix3, the same conclusion has been reached, which is that the NNSs use more modal auxiliaries than NSs; 1.65% and 1.23% of the total words in each corpus, respectively.

Although, generally, there is an overuse of modal auxiliaries by NNSs, some of these modals were either mistakenly used. Similarly, Holmes (1998) suggests that the overuse of the modal auxiliary *will* could be attributed to one of three hypotheses: either L1 transfer (interlingual); or **developmental factor**; or **teaching-induced**; or speech-like writing (viz., students' writing is affected by the way they speak, i.e., register-interference). The researcher of this study prefers the second and the third hypotheses for the following reasons. In one of the modules, which forms part of the non-native speakers' corpus, students were requested to write a research proposal, and so they used the word *will* many times to talk about their plans even though the present simple tense could have simply been used to express planned future activities. Holmes (1998) assumes that the overuse of modal auxiliaries could also be attributed to the fact that textbooks mainly focus on teaching modal auxiliaries and pay little attention to the other methods of expressing modality.

These modal auxiliaries gained a lot of popularity because they provide learners with a vast variety of options to express modal meanings, whether epistemic or non-epistemic (Simon-Vandenberg & Aijmer, 2007). It is also interesting to notice that NSs use *may*, *could* and *would* (modals mainly expressing probability) more than NNSs. This could be attributed to the fact that NSs tends to use these modals when they want to show their attenuation about their propositions (epistemic stance). In other words, NSs prefer to use these probability modals when they give unproven truth in their proposition (Hyland, 1996). Finally, the modal auxiliary *should* is one of the modals which was overused by BUiD students. When the researcher examined the occurrences of *should* there, he found that students used this modal mainly to express the code of conduct or norms that usually take place in teaching or research, for example, “*the teacher should aim to create a suitable psychological atmosphere in order to lower learner’s anxiety arising from their increased autonomous roles*”. Another student discussing the right of study participants to take part in the study said, “*Participants should be told they have the right to decline involvement in the study*”.

The second category of hedges (according to Hyland’s model), employed by both native and non-native speakers, is the hedging adverbs. This time, the native speakers use more adverbs than non-native speakers; 1,096 and 723, respectively. Generally, within the global list of the hedging adverb, the difference between the two frequencies is statistically significant, particularly, the difference between the probability adverbs, such as ‘perhaps’ which was used 81 times by NSs and 8 times by NNSs. Similarly, adverbs like ‘possibly’, ‘likely’, ‘roughly’ were greatly underused by the NNSs. Biber (2006) divided stance adverbs into three categories; epistemic adverbs, which express either certainty or probability; attitude adverbs and style adverbs. Epistemic probability adverbs are used to show the writer’s judgment and the degree of doubt towards the information given in a proposition. Giving a judgement and offering information objectively is one the features that distinguishes native writing. On the other hand, the non-native speakers underuse probability adverbs because they think this would jeopardize the value of their stances and make them seem less confident.

The finding of the underuse of hedging by non-native speakers was confirmed by Salagar-Meyer’s (1994) proposed taxonomy of hedging markers, which was applied to both corpora. The chi-square results suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between native and non-native speakers in their use of the hedging markers. Looking closely at the different taxonomies proposed

by Salagar-Meyer (1994), it can be easily discerned that non-native speakers underused all types of hedges except for the intensifiers. Furthermore, *the shields* is the top category with the highest frequencies in both corpora. This finding is in line with Nasiri (2012). This high frequency of *shields* is expected because one of the components of this category is modal auxiliaries which are deployed largely by both native and non-native speakers; 3,533 times=1.23 of the total number of words and 4,748 times=1.65 of the total number of words, respectively. The underuse of single modal auxiliaries has been covered in the previous paragraphs. In the next few lines, the combination of modal auxiliaries and some other parts of speech is to be commented on. When the epistemic and root meaning of modals were examined, it is found that NNS underuse modals with epistemic meaning. Additionally, when the researcher examined the combination of *would* + *lexical verbs* (with epistemic meaning like *seem*, *appear*, and *need*), he found that BUiD students significantly underused this combination of double hedging. Similarly, when the harmonic and disharmonic combination of modals and intensifying adverbs were investigated, it was found that native speakers used more combinations than non-native speakers. This finding does not agree with Aijmer's (2002) finding because she concluded that NNSs used the harmonic modals more frequently and with more types than NSs. This finding, pertaining the intensifying adverbs, necessitates having a deeper look at the different contexts and structures in which they are used. The researcher depends mainly on Quirk et al.'s (1985) model in which they divide intensifiers into two main categories; amplifiers (maximizers and boosters) and downtoners (approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers-negative maximizers). There seems to be unanimous agreement among researchers that NSs tend to 'downstate' while NNS tend to 'overstate' (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Milton, 1998). However, in this study and contrary to the expectations, NNS underused all scalar intensifiers (including both amplifiers and downtoners). This finding is in line with Granger (1998). The underrepresentation of boosters in the non-native speakers' corpus is significant enough to be the cause of the underrepresentation of amplifiers in general. However, the underuse of maximizers is ignored, as the difference is not significant.

The underuse of boosters is not confined to booster types but it includes the frequency of these boosters as well. When the lists of boosters compared, it is found that there are 22 types of boosters (with 38 frequencies in NSs' corpus) that are not deployed at all by the non-native speakers (e.g., remarkably, desperately and agonizingly). As mentioned before, this case of nonexistence of some boosters in the NNSs' corpus could be attributed to the "natural deficiency of non-native

vocabulary” (Lorenz, 1999, p. 28). Similarly, most of the boosters, underused by non-native speakers, were a combination of an intensifying adverb ending with the suffix *-ly* followed by an adjective (adv-adj-, e.g., increasingly difficult). This type of adverbial collocation requires high combinatory skill, which does not seem within the capabilities of the non-native speakers. To counteract this deficiency, NNSs resort to use all-round or stereotyped boosters that can be used in many contexts, such as *very*. This booster (i.e., *very*) is overused by NNSs, with 272 occurrences while NSs used it only 187 times. The non-native speakers’ language deficiency is further corroborated by the lack of complex forms found in the native speakers’ corpus such ‘*no more than*’. The core word of the previous phrase is the adverb ‘*more*’. This adverb in this context has been mistakenly classified by Wmatrix3 as a booster, but in reality and in this context, it is no more than a downtoner. If the frequency of this adverb is taken away from the total of boosters in the NSs’ corpus, this would reduce the number of amplifiers greatly. As mentioned earlier, NNSs do not only underuse the amplifiers, but the downtoners as well. The corroborating evidence for this underuse is found in the significant difference between the frequencies of downtoners in both NSs and NNSs’ corpora (702 times and 414 times, respectively). Generally, downstating, as a way of hedging, is used to express vagueness and attenuation, which are two rhetorical strategies that distinguish a native speakers’ writing (Channel, 1994; McKenny, 2006). One of the important hedges that lies within the compromisers (subcategory of downtoners) is *sort of*. This hedge, which shows the degree of commitment of the writer towards the truth in a proposition, is significantly underused by the NNSs who were not trained or taught to exploit the indirect meaning of this hedge. Although NNSs underused this hedge, which shows the degree of commitment to the truth in their propositions, they overused the extraposition ‘*it... that*’ which they used to indirectly comment on their propositions. The collected data suggests that the overuse could be attributed to a combination of factors. The substantive one is that they found this formulaic structure easy to start the sentence with. Furthermore, this structure is usually used to show some kind of objective modality and since there is difference in the quantity and quality between native and non-native speakers, this suggests that both groups use different ways to express modality (Aronsson, 2001; 2002). Finally, when the distributional pattern of hedges across sections was investigated, it was found that the discussion section was the most hedged section as there the writers propose their claims and give their interpretations, which would make them stand out and appear with more credibility (Hyland, 1998). As for the types of hedges in the different sections, it was found that in

the introduction, the most frequent hedges are *such as* and *I*. These two are used to show the author's personal view. In the literature review, the most frequent hedge was the modal auxiliary *should*.

## 5.1 Implications

Pedagogically, hedging is one of the areas that needs to be focused on by both language instructors and curriculum designers (Hyland, 1994). Many of the writing problems faced by non-native speakers in this study seem to be mainly teaching-induced. Therefore, the Academic Success Unit, as academic support centre at the British University in Dubai, can offer workshops on this rhetorical strategy. In these workshops, students could be trained on how to present their argument without sounding dogmatic. They could be also advised that being cautious when they present their claims would protect them in case these claims are proved wrong by news studies. Since this study suggests that, there is an overuse of modal auxiliaries with root meaning by non-native speakers, ELT teachers need to pay greater attention to the epistemic meaning of modal auxiliaries. Reppen and Simpson (2002) suggest that material designers need to benefit from corpora by using the actual language instead of depending on language patterns that are artificial and does not look authentic.

The divergent use of Hedging would make the non-native speakers' writing seem deficient or different from that of the native speakers' and this would lead to the rejection of their publications (Alimorad & Sahragard, 2012). This point is tremendously important for the BUiD doctoral students, as being published is one of the requirements to obtain a degree.

Data-driven learning (DDL), which is defined as the use of corpus concordances in classrooms, is one of the important applications of learner corpora (Meunier, 2002). With this application, instructors at Writing Centres (e.g. The Doctoral Training Centre at BUiD) can train students to peruse the concordances of the authentic language of native speakers in order to find the regularities of this language. Then, they can examine non-native corpus to hold a comparison and find the irregular patterns.

## 5.2 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The underrepresentation or wrong use of some hedges were justified as teaching-induced. These deductions need to be further corroborated by more research. Furthermore, the relative small size



of both corpora would limit the generalizations of their findings. Finally, since the investigation was mainly computer-based, each result reached by using this method needs to be further supported by manual investigation (e.g. applying 'brain and eye' approach).

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## **APPENDICES**

## Appendix 1: Samples from BUiD Corpus

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**Outline** This research proposed by the author will aim to investigate the effect of using the student-centered 'Drawing to Learn' (DTL) method on primary, middle and high school students' understanding and achievement in science. The author aims to conduct a 4 week workshop where three in-service science teachers (grade 3, 6 and 9) will be taught how to use DTL method in their science classrooms. These teachers will then be responsible for the experimental group of students, and another section of the same three grades will be the control group, as they will be taught by teachers using the traditional, teacher directed method. The experimental and control groups will be given a pre-test prior to the beginning of the instruction, and a post-test after an entire unit has been taught (8 weeks). This instrument will gauge their understanding of the specific unit(s) in science by a scoring rubric, and the formative and summative assessments made at the end of the unit will hopefully give a comparison as to the grades achieved by students taught by the DTL method as compared to those by the traditional method. Statistical analysis will be done on the results to determine if there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the instrument and the test scores. The author expects the experimental group to have a higher score in both the understanding of concepts in science and test scores, thus validating the idea that DTL methods is better than the traditional method in the science classroom.

**Rationale** The traditional method of 'teacher directed' study is unfortunately the prevailing method in the science classrooms of Indian schools following the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) (Lal, 2005). Sadly, this method of memorization and regurgitation of facts and knowledge has been an intrinsic part of Indian education system due to its ancient religious roots, where the entire Hindu religion seems to be a collection of memorized facts and stories passed on by the elite 'Brahmin' class (Mukherjee, 2002). This could be a reason as to why the authorities in charge have been reluctant to change. Achievement in grades could be the other worry. Lerner (2007) feels that the traditional method might have persisted due to the 'long-standing' paradox that exists where science students are supposed to be paragons of fact memorization yet they are supposed to be having an open and curious mind. Whatever the reason, the 'DTL' method may be a way to phase out this ancient and pedagogically unsuitable method of instruction out. The author came across DTL during one of his courses at the British University in Dubai (EDU519-Trends and Issues in Science Education, Journal Review, 2012), and since then, has planned on using it as a part of his research. TL is basically defined as a method of learning, where the learner is encouraged to draw, or pencil down their understanding of what is happening as they are faced with a new concept or problem. They are then encouraged to use their own drawings to explore or explain the phenomena further, in a student-centered, inquiry based instruction (Ainsworth et al, 2011; Lerner, 2007; Gilbert, 2005; Brooks, 2009; Prosser., 1998; Prosser and Banks, 1996). Preliminary literature review appears to substantiate that DTL could be very useful in classrooms, especially those in a CBSE traditional, teacher-directed system. One of the most recent studies on DTL was done by help from the Australian Research Council's initiative, 'The Role of Representation in Learning Science (RiLS).' Combining the three plus years of officially funded data collection, Ainsworth et al (2011) have studied the effects of DTL in science classrooms extensively. Deakin University, Australia, also had professors using DTL to teach concepts as complex as force and genetics (Deakin University, 2012). They found that students were more at ease when using their own drawings and diagrams to understand and make sense of what was happening. One example in particular was mentioned on Deakin University's website. A chapter on 'Water' was amended to include

some DTL elements, and this is what was reported: “Students placed their wet hands on paper and then were challenged to represent what happens as the handprint faded. The drawings produced showed that the students understood and had expanded on previous class work on particle distribution and movement, energy exchange and time sequencing,” (Tytler, as quoted in Deakin University 2012). Hackling and Prain (2005) mentioned that students seemed to be more motivated to learn science when they were asked to draw and explore the concepts given to them. Huber et al (2010) share this view in their research done five years later, where they have seen improvements when arrows were used to explain forces. Although arrows are conventionally used in science to show force, the students understood the ‘scientific arrow convention’ far better when they were allowed to draw their own interpretations of what was happening using their own arrow. Further to improvements in comprehension, DTL has also been shown to increase student motivation and attitudes towards science classrooms as drawing is a basic skill that most learners are exposed to at a very early age, and something they continue to enjoy even at a more mature state (Gilbert, 2010; Brooks, 2009; NAS 2004). Looking briefly at the above literature, it does seem surprising that DTL has not found its way into teacher-directed classrooms. It seems simple enough to teach and at the same time, is very much constructivist in nature. The author’s own efforts at discourse with headmasters and school principals of schools in Dubai using a similar, archaic method of teaching has invariably led to two questions: “What new methods can we use that won’t significantly affect our budget and what if the students score poorly in their exams as a result of a new teaching method?” This is an experience also faced by Lerner (2007) where Lerner goes on to state that reliance on grades and standardized tests will prevent concepts such as DTL from becoming ‘mainstream,’ regardless of their positive effect on students’ understanding and attitudes towards science. Herein lies a gap in the previous research. Although previous investigators have looked at how DTL has positive affects in student learning, not enough data exists to compare DTL against a traditional teaching method, and no work has been found looking at correlation between DTL and student achievement in class/standardized tests. Thus the main Rationale behind this study is to try to bridge this gap in the research and investigate if the DTL method, which is relatively easy and inexpensive to implement, is better than the traditional method not only in terms of students’ understanding inside the science classroom by using a control group of students taught by the traditional method, but also in parameters that matter to the school management – financial feasibility of implementation and effect on student grades.

### Research Questions

The three main research questions being tackled by the author in the proposed study, is: 1. Can DTL method be taught to in-service teachers and successfully implemented with minimum cost to the school budget? 2. Do DTL methods have any positive effect on student understanding of science concepts as compared to using the traditional method to teach the same topic/unit? 3. Does DTL methods have any effect on student achievement in formative/summative test scores as compared to students taught in the traditional method?

### Outline of Methods

There are several parts to this proposed research that the Methodology needs to attend to: 1. Selecting an Indian school following the CBSE syllabus, and gaining the relevant consent from the school management. 2. Determining if there are more than one same-gender section for the grades 3, 6 and 9 for science, in order to minimize variables that might affect the outcome (gender bias, time of day, school environment etc). 3. Ascertaining if the teachers are using a teacher-directed method of instruction, in order to have a control group. 4. Explain the process and rationale behind the workshop to the three science teachers chosen at random to deliver the DTL concepts. 5. Begin the investigation by first giving the pre-test, followed by a series of DTL workshops for the teachers (4 weeks), following its implementation over the next 8 weeks and

finally delivering a post-test to both the groups and then analyzing the results. 6. Conduct an interview with the teachers of the experimental group to determine their attitudes and those of the children towards DTL based instruction. The first part of the Methodology is selecting a school with a CBSE syllabus, which is focused on teacher directed lessons and get the necessary ethical consents from the school management. Whether the science classes in this school are in fact centered around a teacher directed method of instruction can be identified by using an instrument (either extant in the literature or by using an adapted/constructed one) in order to observe the classrooms (grade 3, 6 and 9) and try to gauge what kind of instruction is in use by the teacher. To further enhance the quality of this preliminary research, a qualitative part can be added by conducting one-on-one interviews with the three teachers to ascertain where in the continuum between the traditional expository style and the constructivist inquiry style the teaching falls under. The interviews can then be transcribed and analyzed to give a clear picture of what form of instruction is being used and the rationale behind it (time constraints, large classrooms etc). Once it has been evinced that the degree of teacher-directed teaching is high (seats all facing the teacher, little or no group work, little or no inquiry etc.), the two groups will be selected at random from among the observed classrooms. The experimental group will be the one where the teacher will be trained in a DTL workshop. These workshops will be conducted in one of the classrooms during the afterschool period, for 90 minute sessions twice a week for four weeks, totaling 6 hours of instruction. The three grades chosen will be grades 3, 6 and 9, to showcase that DTL can be used across the entire school. Each section in the school will have an estimated head count of thirty students, totaling approximately 90 students in the experimental group, The control group will be a different section of the same grade, taught by another teacher not part of the teacher training workshop, who will teach the same unit in a teacher-directed environment (as seen by the preliminary observational study and follow-up interviews). The class numbers will be similar to those in the experimental group, bringing the total number of student participants to 180. The pre-test will be administered to the experimental and control groups by the teachers and the workshops will begin for the three science teachers. Once the workshop has been concluded, the teachers will teach a unit (covered within the workshop) to their classrooms using the DTL method over a 8 week period comprising of 32-40 (45 minute) science periods totaling a maximum of 30 hours of DTL based instruction. Four random monitoring sessions will be conducted to observe to what degree the DTL methods covered during the in-service teacher DTL workshops are being delivered. An observation checklist will be used to gauge the successful integration and implementation of the DTL concepts in the experimental classrooms. At the end of the 8 week period, the post-test will be administered to both the experimental and control groups, and the results of this test as well as those of the regular scheduled formative and summative assessments of that unit (delivered by teachers as per their schedule) will be also tabulated for data analysis. At this moment, the author believes a T-test to determine a difference in the means between the pre-test and post-test would be ideal to indicate if the DTL based instruction did in fact result in a higher average test score in both the post-test and the school based tests. Possible issues that will be faced with this mixed-methods approach will be: 1.It might be very difficult to exclude other variables from influencing the post-test results. Since the treatment will continue for 8 weeks, the students may be exposed to other variables such as ICT or discussion with parents etc. which may affect their answers. 2. The teachers, whose average salary is around AED 2000 (Previous research by author in same school, 2012), may not be too keen to be staying for the DTL workshops, since they will not be receiving any remuneration. 3.Teachers may be reluctant and apprehensive in implementing the DTL as this may bring the grades of the children under their charge down, and this may have implications during their periodic

evaluations, salary reviews etc. 4. Since the study will be consented to by the school management, the teachers during their pre-treatment and post-treatment interviews may not be too candid with their criticism of the existing traditional method of student instruction as remarks against the current system may be construed negatively by the school management. 5. Teachers may be guilty of 'teaching to the test' as far as the post-test goes. Since the post-test will be the same as the pre-test, teachers might, by some misguided sense of competition, try to 'aid' the student replies to the post-test. 6. Transcribing all the interviews may prove difficult and time-consuming. 7. An inter-rater reliability study must be done to gauge the reliability of the instruments used. <heading>Proposed Timeline of Research</heading> A Gantt was created by using Smartsheet to showcase the proposed timeline. Figure 1 shows this after the file was exported to Microsoft Excel. The entire study is expected to take 125 days, commencing on the 1st of April 2014, and finishing on the 22nd of September, 2014. The Gantt chart is available as a separate attachment, as it is too large to fit in a word document. <Figure 1>

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<heading>Introduction</heading> Effective language teaching and learning has been the concern of practitioners in the field of education for many years. Issues such as second language learning (SLL) anxiety, engagement and motivation have occupied much of the literature and scholars all over the world probed different educational fields and areas trying to find approaches and methods that can minimize language learning anxiety and enhance engagement and motivation. Humanistic language teaching, hereafter HLT, was proposed as an approach that can achieve these goals and provide effective answers to SLL problems. Although SLL is a complex process that depends on various factors, advocates of HLT argue that the problems that SL learners face are not only due to intellectual factors but also to the affective aspects of learning. HLT is based on the premise that in order to create a conducive learning environment, teachers need to go beyond the observable classroom activities into the psychological world of the learners. HLT views SLL as a process that involves the whole person and not only the intellect. It takes into consideration the emotional side of learning and considers it as a crucial factor for the success of the SLL process (Stevick 1990; Rogers et al. 1994; Arnold 1998). The issues of SLL problems and the adoption of HLT as a potential solution to these problems are of special interest to the researcher as they relate to his field of specialization as an English language teacher at a tertiary education institution in the UAE. Throughout his 15 years of experience in the field of EFL, the researcher noticed that many of the problems his students faced were the result of psychological factors beyond the intellectual aspect of learning. This understanding has always urged the researcher to cater for the emotional side of his students' learning experience or what is known as the affective domain. Therefore, the researcher is interested in investigating the extent to which HLT is incorporated in the teaching practices in the Foundation Program and he is also interested in finding about the potential value of this approach in solving SLL problems. Hence, this study will aim to answer the following two questions: 1. Is HLT part of the instructional practices of the English teachers at the Foundation Program? 2. Can HLT lead to a better learning environment in the Foundation Program? In order to address these questions adequately, a mixed method approach will be adopted in which both quantitative and qualitative data will be collected. It is hoped that through the triangulation of the different types of collected data more insight will be gained into the investigated area and further reliability will be added to the findings of the study. <heading>Literature Review. <heading>The Humanistic Approach</heading> The humanistic approach was proposed by Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow as a reaction to Skinner's behaviorist approach. The humanistic approach is in direct contrast with the behaviorist ideas in terms

of the way it perceives human behavior and personality. Humanists like Rogers argue that behavior has a personal and subjective meaning whereas Skinner's psychodynamic theory perceived behavior as merely neurotic and mechanical. Hence humanists adopted a totally different concept of human personality as they considered every individual to be unique with an innate capacity for self-development that enables him/her to decide how to develop and grow. (Maslow 1968; Stevick 1990; Arnold 1998). Maslow's and Roger's studies on human behavior formed the psychological basis of the humanistic approach. Maslow (1968) argues that experiences and thoughts shape the unique nature of every individual. Therefore, children need to be given the opportunity by parents and teachers to make their own choices after satisfying their psychological and safety needs. Maslow (1968) also proposed the concept of 'self-actualization' and he defined it as peoples' innate desire to fulfill their potential. Self-actualization lies on the top of Maslow's hierarchy of needs which also includes the needs for self-esteem, safety and love. Rogers' (1961) findings as a therapist lead to the emergence of student-centered classroom. The term was the result of Roger's experiences with his patients. He found that the client rather than the therapist should be the center of focus and thus when patients became more aware of their problems; they were able to solve them with minimal help from the therapist. Rogers suggested that his approach was applicable to teaching in what is known as learner-centered education. It means that learners can educate themselves with the least instructional help from teachers.

<Humanistic Language Teaching HLT> Lyon (1971) defines HLT as the integration of the affective and cognitive domains in individual and group learning. This definition reflects the emphasis that HLT gives to teaching the 'whole person'; that is, catering for the intellectual and affective aspects of learning. Wang et al. (1993) argues for this principle of HLT by stating that unless basic psychological needs are met, learners will fail to focus on their language learning whole-heartedly. One of the facts that HLT draws attention to is that language learners are likely to develop feelings of anxiety if the learning task is felt to be beyond their knowledge and skills. Therefore, anxiety is believed to be a major problem in language learning. Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue that language learning involves much stress due to learners' need to deal with the difficulties of existing in the public environment of the classroom in which a foreign language is used. Arnold (1999) argues that addressing the affective side can enhance language learning through reducing anxiety and increasing security and self-confidence, which enhances learning motivation. The premises on which HLT is based also include such factors as engagement and motivation. Wright (2005) points out that engagement is the short and long-term management of 'difficult' emotional states that determines learners' commitment to the learning task. Rogers (2002) argues that long-term engagement is fostered when the language learning experiences are generally positive ones. Conversely, negative learning experiences would impede long-term engagement. Moskowitz (1978) highlights the nature of HLT. She points out that HLT is not supposed to be viewed as a form of therapy. Instead, HLT is a valid teaching and learning approach which is rich with a content that can connect learners' feelings and memories with their experiences and aspirations. Moskowitz (1978) proposed a lot of instructional techniques which were mainly based on the principles of enabling learners to achieve their full potential and enhance their self-esteem through addressing both the cognitive and affective aspects of learning. <Humanistic activities> Stevick (1990) points out that humanistic activities are based on the belief that people have an innate capacity for learning and that this learning has to be of personal meaning to them. He argues that humanistic activities roam around three aspects: emotions, group relations and self-actualization. In addition, learner's autonomy is highly considered in humanistic activities. Hogan (1978) argues that "Humanistic instruction..... allows and encourages students to be as autonomous, as committed, and as responsible in the learning process as

they are capable of being” (p. 262). Feelings of closeness and belonging among students are also expected to be developed through humanistic activities. This positive effect of humanistic activities on the personal growth of students is the result of the emphasis on the intellectual and emotional aspects of learning. Moskowitz (1999) argues that humanistic exercises are concerned with enabling learners to become aware of their own strengths, see the good in others and develop closer and more satisfying relationships. She adds that humanistic exercises are geared towards students being listened to, understood and accepted. <Three humanistic methods> Community language learning, the silent way and suggestopedia are three methods that are based on the principles of HLT. In community language learning, teachers perform the role of counselors who give away their authority to the learners to help them realize their independence in learning. One of the techniques in this method is learners sitting in a circle and talking about what they want to learn (Curran 1976). In the silent way, much autonomy is given to the learners as the teacher remains silent throughout the lesson but stays in control of the class. (Gattengo 1972). Suggestopedia suggests that learners need a secure and relaxing class atmosphere to be able to learn. Therefore music and songs are used by teachers who also play a genuine role in the activities (Lazanov 1979). In addition to these three methods, Amini & Amini (2012) argue that almost all language teaching methods seem to have some elements of HLT which implies that all language teaching methods are humanistic in nature. <The role of the teacher> Stevick (1980) argues that what goes on inside the language classroom between the teacher and the learners determines the success of the lesson more than the materials and the techniques do. This argument is reflected in the shift of focus in the classroom from teaching to learning and from the teacher to the students, which is one of the main principles of HLT. As a result to the new role of the teacher, Underhill (1999) points out that the teacher is no longer the controller of the class but a facilitator who is aware of the requirements of student-centered classroom. Underhill (1999) argues that the facilitator role of the teacher not only entails competence of the strategies and methods of teaching but also the knowledge of the psychological processes of learning. Moreover, paying attention to the way he/she listens, speaks, uses power is one main quality of a facilitator teacher. In a word, a facilitator teacher “assists learners in their headway to autonomy and self-awareness through a skillful use of techniques and strategies” (Khatib et al. 2013, p.49). <The role of the learner> Through HLT, learners are directed into becoming more independent as more of the learning responsibility is handed over to them. Learners’ opinion about the lesson is given high importance in HLT which redefines the conventional concept of instruction. However, due to the learners’ new focal role, some psychological problems may emerge. Therefore, the teacher should aim to create a suitable psychological atmosphere in order to lower learners’ anxiety arising from their increased autonomous roles (Khatib et al. 2013). <Methodology> The current study aims at investigating the extent to which HLT is incorporated in the Foundation program in the HCT-Fujairah campuses. A mixed method approach was selected by the researcher to carry out the study in which both the qualitative and quantitative research methods will be used. Quantitative data will be collected through close-ended questionnaires, and qualitative data will be collected through semi-structured interviews and a focus group discussion. The different types of data collected through the mixed approach are hoped to offer a deeper understanding of the investigated area (Lichtman 2010). The research findings are also expected to gain more reliability and validity through this method. Creswell (2008, p.552) defines a mixed method as “collecting, analyzing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a single study to understand the research problem.” According to Creswell (2008), a bigger sample size with wider generalizability is available through quantitative research whereas qualitative research offers in-depth information about individuals and settings.



Emphasizing the relation between qualitative and quantitative approaches, Long (2000) argues that quantitative and qualitative methods can be interrelated in the sense that quantitative research may involve qualitative decisions. Therefore, a mix of both methods is believed to provide further insights into the incorporation of HLT in the foundation program and its potential value in improving language learning. The current study also adopted the triangulation design of mixed methods. Creswell (2008) defines triangulation of data as simultaneously collecting and merging the quantitative and qualitative data, and using the results to understand a research problem. This design supports the research findings by balancing the strengths and weaknesses of different forms of data collection.

<The participants> The participants are 29 teachers at the Foundation program at HCT-Fujairah men's and women's campuses. They are from different nationalities but mostly westerners and the majority of them have over ten years of teaching experience. The teachers will be selected for the interviews and the focus group discussion according to the researcher's criteria explained later on, but all of the teachers are expected to respond to the survey.

<Research Tools> <The survey> Creswell (2003) points out that surveys are cost-effective as they offer rapid data collection. In the first stage of the study, an online 30-item Likert-scale survey will seek to answer the first research question which aims to investigate the incorporation of HLT in the Foundation program. The survey items will reflect the common practices of HLT and will be developed by the researcher after analyzing the writings of Rogers and Maslow. The 30 items will be scaled "Very often", "Often", "Sometimes", "Rarely" and "Never". Finally, numerical data gained from the survey will undergo descriptive analysis using SurveyMonkey.com.

<The interviews> Semi-structured interviews will be carried out with the teachers in the second stage of the study to follow up the quantitative data gained from the survey and to seek an answer to the second research question. The interviews are expected to offer rich information about and clear understanding of the foundation teachers' use of humanistic techniques in their instructional practices and the usefulness of these techniques to their teaching environments. Through a purposive sample, ten Foundation teachers who have minimum ten years of experience will be chosen for the interviews and they should also be teaching different Foundation levels in both the men's and women's campuses to meet the researcher's selection criteria. A list of questions will be prepared prior to the interviews but the chance will be given for discussing the issues that may come up during the interviews. The data collected from the interviews will be manually transcribed and categorized into common topics and themes.

<The Focus Group> In the third stage of the study, a focus group discussion will be held to follow up the data collected from the survey and the interviews. Singleton & Straits (2005) point out that in a focus group discussion a small group of participants discuss a topic under the guidance of a skilled interviewer. Lichtman (2006) states that a focus group discussion has an advantage over the interviews in that it triggers thoughts that do not emerge during interviews. The focus group will be composed of 5 teachers who will be selected according to their level of knowledge of HLT. The focus group discussion will be audio-taped and some of the questions from the interviews will be raised. But the questions will probably be modified according to the flow of the discussion.

<Validity and reliability> In order to determine the validity and reliability of the instruments, they need to be critically assessed. Orlich (1999, p. 354) defines validity as "the degree to which a test measures what it is intended to measure" whereas reliability stands for the consistency of the test results if it is repeated under the same conditions. To check the validity of the survey, it will be piloted in advance in order to make sure that the 30 items effectively represent the most common practices of HLT. As for the reliability side, it is believed that the use of the mixed method approach and the triangulation of the collected data will add to the reliability of the instruments.

<Data Collection> The data will be collected throughout the current spring semester. The researcher will seize

the opportunity of the professional development week in HCT-Fujairah between March 23-27 in which teachers will be free of classes to conduct the interviews and the focus group discussion with them. The survey will also be sent across to all Foundation teachers in both colleges during that week. Then the analysis and discussion of the findings will take place.

<heading>Ethical Issues</heading> Ethical issues will be given high importance throughout the study. The researcher will ensure that the entire research will be carried out in a fair and professional manner (Creswell 2003). An approval on the study will be obtained from the HCT research committee before sending the survey and conducting the interviews and the focus group discussion. In addition, a consent form which explains the purpose of the study will be given to the participants. Richey and Klein (2007, p. 95) point out “to avoid coercion, participants should be told they have the right to decline involvement in the study and be allowed to withdraw from it at any time without penalty.” Anonymity of the participants will be also maintained as well as confidentiality of information.

<Accessibility> The researcher is currently employed by the Higher Colleges of Technology HCT which will facilitate the execution of the study. The fact that the researcher is working with the organization in which the study will be conducted gives him the advantage of utilizing the already established rapport with teachers as they will be more open and relaxed in sharing their experiences and information with the researcher. The HCT is also very interested in enhancing its research body through studies conducted by staff in order to improve the quality of the teaching/learning environment.

<heading>Concluding Remarks</heading> This study attempts to examine the extent to which HLT is incorporated in the Foundation program as well as the probable value of this approach in solving SLL problems and enhancing the teaching/learning environment at the Foundation program. The mixed method approach used in this study will be utilized to explore the nature of instructional practices incorporated by the Foundation teachers and the closeness of these practices to the principles of HLT. However, the fact that this study will be conducted only within the Fujairah campuses would constrain the generalizability of its findings. Yet the fact that all Foundation teachers across the HCT system teach local students of the same sociocultural background suggests that the findings of the study can be generable to some extent. The researcher also hopes that this study will open the door for further research on the potential benefit of the humanistic approach to English language teaching and learning in the Foundation program across the HCT system and in other higher education settings as well. Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class shows how to integrate a humanistic approach to language teaching with a planned curriculum to promote student self-actualization and self-esteem. As the topic of this study is humanistic language teaching, this book is a valuable resource that can provide the researcher with plenty of examples on humanistic exercises and techniques. This book deals with the theoretical framework of humanistic language teaching. However, it does not provide sufficient account of the basic principles of the humanistic approach in language teaching. Rather, it is more of critical review of it. Yet a lot can be drawn from the book about the nature of HLT, which makes it an important reference for this study. The eighteen chapters in this book discuss issues such as memory, anxiety, self-esteem, facilitation, autonomy, classroom activities, and assessment from the perspective of affect. This book is of great interest to the researcher as it includes a number of illuminating and informative articles on how to improve language teaching through a greater awareness of the role affect plays. This book provides a practical approach to educational psychology and it demonstrates how psychological theories are applied to the everyday experiences of teachers. Chapter 11 in the book deals with different approaches to instruction including the humanistic approach. The chapter also deals with issues like the use of technology to support humanistic teaching and the concept of motivation from a humanistic point of view. This is a very useful book that stimulates

researchers through use of exercises and production of actual writing samples. The book models the types of issues that best suit different approaches and allows researchers to understand when to use mixed methods. Thus this book is an indispensable resource for the researcher of this study as it offers clear and solid guidance through the different stages of research writing and design.

## Appendix 2: Samples from BAWE Corpus

11

The once fashionable belief that class analysis provides the key to history has increasingly come under attack. For many, both inside and outside of the Academy, class is no longer a viable way of looking at the world and examining history; it has become part of history itself. Jan Pakulski and Malcolm Waters assert that 'like beads and Che Guevara berets, class is passé', and they dedicate their work to 'confirm the good news that class has collapsed'. This paper examines the reasons behind the 'death of class' contention and offers an opinion on whether they are valid. <fnote>Jan Pakulski and Malcolm Waters, *The Death of Class* (London, 1996), p. 1. </fnote><fnote>Ibid, p. 7. </fnote><fnote>Ibid, p. 1. </fnote>Karl Marx's name is synonymous with the concept of class. He states that men were always constituted by the antagonistic class relations into whom they are cast 'and the history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles'. This assertion was seen to not only have a capacity to unmask the structure of capitalist power, particularly in its inequitable and exploitative guises, but also to change the political terrain irrevocably. However, it is significant to note that he gives class no precise definition. Using his work, later Marxists developed what they saw as a duality to class. In an 'objective' sense, they spoke of a class 'in itself', which was no more than a form of collective identity. This grouped people together by their shared economic characteristics, principally in their relationship to the means of production. In a 'subjective' sense, there was a class 'for itself', which describes the process by which these aggregates become politically and consciously transformed, aware of themselves as a class. Others later took up the torch. Led by E P Thompson, the British Marxist historians present a history of class 'from the bottom up'. Thompson attacked the tendency of historians to see class as merely a structure or category and in doing so 'obscure the agency of the working people'. He began to recognise the *prima facie* relevance to other emerging social identities, such as feminism, thereby relinquishing Marx's economic 'determination in the last instance'. Despite this, to the Marxist, class remains primarily the anvil on which history was formed. <fnote>Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, *The Communist Manifesto* (London, 1967), p. 79. </fnote><fnote>Cited in Harvey Kaye, *The Education of Desire* (New York, 1992), p.27. </fnote>J F Lyotard, *The Postmodern Condition* (Minnesota, 1984), p. 13. </fnote>We now turn to the factors that, in some eyes, have made class irrelevant to historical analysis, starting with Postmodernism. With the collapse of the Soviet Union, defeat of organised labour, the fall of great Victorian staple industries, redundancy of Trade Unions and recrudescence of the New Right, scholars began to rethink the meaning of past verities. These changing dimensions had struck a fatal blow to the class politics of the Left, confirmed in the Thatcher electoral victories in 1979, 1983 and 1987. To Postmodernists, even the Miners' strike of the 1980s has more to do with the effect on community life, rather than traditional direct class struggle. Whereas for Marx, class was the essence of history, for the Thatcherite New Right, class was its perversion and they sought a 'classless society'. Postmodernists claim that the world today is no more than a global triumph of free market economies and pluralistic democracies, thereby bringing the old metanarratives, such as class, to their knees. Indeed, J F Lyotard opined that class had been 'blurred to the point of losing all radicality'. However, the license for the blanket repudiation of class on these grounds is weak. <fnote></fnote>Firstly, Postmodernist theory misses the continued critical relevance of class to the events it describes. Class can be used to explain the collapse of the USSR. The New Right traditionally sees this as a triumphant consequence of transnational capitalism and an overburdening system of military expenditure. The corruption, bureaucratisation and nepotism of the Soviet ruling class, particularly in the excesses of the Brezhnev

era, ensured the continued oppression and alienation of workers. Against Postmodernist critiques, this alienation of labour and the consequent role of the masses in overthrowing the system suggest the continued viability of class. Secondly, although recognising the New Right's desire to drive class off the agenda - Thatcher called it a 'communist concept' - they remained sensitive to its continued power. The New Right was simply adept at disguising the language of class within the ideological cover of national security, jingoism and honour. Furthermore, the Postmodernist concept of a 'classless society' inherent in the language of the New Right is misleading. The New Right used the term not to describe a society without class but as the goal of a meritocratic society providing opportunity for people to advance regardless of class. Thus, the New Right is in fact reinforcing the existence of classes that it has only linguistically abolished. Finally, the Postmodernist charge rests on a haphazard assumption that the world is totally equitable under conditions of market capitalism. However, in its latest manifestation, capitalism continues to distribute inequitably its product. There is a clustering of power in the hands of a small homogenous elite, whilst the people of the Third World increasingly live in conditions of chronic penury. Therefore, we need a class element, in order to explain the negative outcomes of capitalism's distributive rationalism. <fnote>Cited in David Cannadine, *Class in Britain* (London, 1998), p. 2. </fnote>The USSR collapse is seen by many as the fundamental nail in the coffin of Marxist class theories. Joyce believes that any mention of class automatically locks us into a set of discourses belonging only to discredited Stalinists and a failed socialist project. Class for Joyce is made solely of Soviet clay. This is indicative of a post-communist age, where all forms of socialism and class have been brought into question, and tarred with the same brush. However, class has long been pluralistic in form, and attacking only the most discredited type of class is only 'scoring easy polemical points'. Indeed, advocates of this approach are mounting simply an ideological, rather than empirically justifiable, charge. Although recognising that orthodox Marxist class theory, and socialism as the telos of history, does look a little dated, class is more fluid than this attack would have us believe. <fnote>Geoffrey Eley and Keith Neild, 'Starting Over: the present, the Postmodern, and the moment of Social History', in Keith Jenkins (ed.), *The Postmodern History Reader* (London, 1997), p. 372. </fnote>Linked to the Postmodernist agenda, class has also come under scrutiny from political historians, such as Frank Parkin. They claim that Marx's triadic society of classes, particularly the two 'great hostile camps' of proletariat and bourgeoisie, outlined in the Communist Manifesto, were historically over-simplified abstractions and it is impossible to locate precisely the politically relevant line of cleavage. This argument has gained momentum in the light of recent political claims that 'we are all middle class'. The working class, severed from the symbolism of old labour movements and increasingly a white-collar composite, has been absorbed into the middle class. This is emblematic in John Prescott's opinion that he is 'anything else than middle class now' despite a working class background. However, in spite of this, class remains a valuable dividing line. Firstly, concentration on headline reductive aspects represents a perverted reading of Marxist class theory. In the *Eighteenth Brumaire*, Marx recognised the existence of other classes but simply felt that 'of all the classes that stand face to face with the bourgeoisie today, the proletariat alone is the really revolutionary class'. Secondly, it is possible to locate lines of cleavage in modern social structures, even if it means abandoning previous Marxist reductive forms. For example, the emergence of a new Super-Class, born in the financial world of London, and a new underclass, living in a permanent state of dependence, are indicative of a reconfigured class structure. Although it is arguably harder to identify, class remains a useful measurement of social hierarchies. <fnote>Cited in George Jones, 'We're all middle class, says Blair', *The Independent*, 15 January 1999 </fnote><fnote>Cited in Andrew Adonis and Stephen Pollard, *A Class Act: the Myth of Britain's Classless*

Society (London, 1997), p. 5. </fnote><fnote>Karl Marx, *The Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Napoleon* (Moscow, 1960), p. 12. </fnote>Proponents of the 'linguistic turn' have also taken up the cacophony of voices declaring the redundancy of class. Born in the theoretical implosions of post-structuralism, language is deemed the foundation of all human activity, exemplified in Levi Strauss's claim 'if you solve the problem...of language, we can explain the rest'. Disciples of this school argue that historians cannot study the vexed relations between capital and labour because it was the language that people employed that provided the essential source of their identity. Class becomes no more than a simple rhetorical construction, still less a genuine motor of change. Gareth Steedman Jones provides the seminal work. He argued that social movements, such as Chartism, could be constituted on ideological and political planes, autonomous from Marxist economic conditions, and irrespective of class connections between them. Chartism spoke a language of class, which owed less to material underpinnings of class than it did to a vision of political evils of capitalist power, which would have predated class-consciousness. By stressing the political content of Chartism, emblematic in the language of parasitism and oppression, he forces us to consider the non-class character of popular radicalism. However, he abandons class at a considerable cost and, indeed, he concludes that his model leads to 'an unconvincing idealism'. He underplays the class nature of Chartism, ignoring the class antagonism at the level of production, and views the position of the state with rose tinted glasses in which the glare of reform obscures undercurrents of coercion and economic controls. If class is to be sacrificed on the altar, it cannot be done with such an idealised reading of discourse. <fnote>Cited in Bryan Palmer, 'Critical Theory: Historical Materialism and the ostensible end of Marxism: the poverty of theory revisited', in Keith Jenkins (ed.), *The Postmodern History Reader* (London, 1997), p. 108. </fnote><fnote>Cited in Bryan Palmer, *The Descent into Discourse* (Philadelphia, 1990), p. 133. </fnote>We must now discuss the impact of race and gender on class. The new social movements have argued that the class preoccupation with the realm of production, held up as its mark of theoretical rigour, downplays the salience of race and gender as categories of historical analysis. Where Marx would argue that ethnic groups are no more than 'national left overs', and it is the material changes in production that explain ethnicity, champions of race and gender analysis have begun to opine that class is a stultifying straight jacket, obscuring other lines of cleavage. Voices emanating from women's history, for example, claim that few women appear in the canonical texts of class and therefore this argues that class analysis should be abandoned, because it takes into account only half of possible historical actors. Although sympathetic to this debate, it is wrong to reject class unconditionally. Instead of bifurcating class, race and gender, historians need to recognise that they are integrated at a conceptual level. Certainly, industrial reconstructing of class relations in Britain resonated in the social and racial engineering of empire. The British exported the vocabulary of class to describe Africans as the same as the lower classes in Britain - 'the residuum'. Race is thus also about class. Furthermore, recent gender studies have shown that working class women never see themselves as just women. Class for many working class women has become a 'hidden injury of class', because they see class inferiority as a sign of personal failure. Ergo, they do not speak of class in the traditional sense - 'I am working class'. Class is thus not just about representation, 'a subject position which can be taken off a discursive shelf and worn at will', but is lived at an intimate level of feeling, inherently bound with gendered identity. Gender is thus also about class. So where does this leave us? Arguably, we should take the Weberian line. Class is neither the sole nor historically universal principle of social structure. Class is best seen as part of a complex interplay with other aspects of social structure such as race and gender <fnote>Cited in Beverley Skeggs, *Formations of Class and Gender: Becoming Respectable* (London, 1997), p. 3. </fnote><fnote>For

arguments see Beverley Skeggs, *Formations of Class and Gender: Becoming Respectable* (London, 1997) </fnote><fnote>T Lears, 'The Concept of Cultural Hegemony: Problems and Possibilities', *American Historical Review*, 90 (1985), p. 577. </fnote><fnote>Beverley Skeggs, *Formations of Class and Gender: Becoming Respectable* (London, 1997), p. 94. </fnote>It is now necessary to examine the impact of consumption patterns on class. It can be opined that humans today are defined not by their relationship to the means of production but by the goods that they purchase in a world of increasing material fetishism. Consumption, therefore, becomes an independent dimension of social stratification and distinction. With humans self-consciously measuring themselves under the slogan, 'I am what I buy' rather than 'I am what I work', class is apparently consigned to the rubbish bin of history. This can potentially upset not only sociological thinking on today's society but also ways in which historians have understood social groups in the past. In his portrait of common Parisian life before 1789, Daniel Roche shows a wider world of rich materialism, thereby suggesting a possible review of the pre-Revolutionary social categorisation dynamics that led to the regime change. However, consumption remains inherently joined to the hip of class. For example, the nouveaux riches cannot necessarily look for a concomitant entry into the traditional halls of upper class society. This may be for 'snobbery' reasons (the 'my mother would not invite yours home for tea' adage) or through failure to adopt the values of their new class, as expressed in Marx's idea of 'false consciousness'. The final part of this paper examines the social fabric of modern Britain, to see whether, despite the emergent views to the contrary, class in reality is still an historical tool that cannot be ignored. In contrast to Marx, who argues that classes serve to distribute power in society, Foucault opines that realities are constructed by discourse and there are no 'real' classes with 'real' interests. However, to proclaim the obsolescence of class on Foucaultian lines is fundamentally flawed, in the face of the evidence of continuing relevance of class in the country. The retired Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr Carey, lamented 'we are still a class-ridden society'. This is also the image shared by foreigners. A survey by the Independent on 10 November 2000 offered that 75 per cent of foreigners said Britain showed marked class distinctions. We must give a few examples of why this is seen to be the case. Britain's education system bears the hallmarks of class inequality. Meritocracy in education is the creed of the elite, and the public schools still serve a predominantly professional clientele and the higher levels of the armed forces. The Education Minister, Alan Johnson, recently bemoaned an 'obscene social class gap' in British Universities, arguing that 'we need to get rid of the rope ladder and build a substantial staircase', in order to allow working class children to attend higher-achieving Universities. The data supports this, as exemplified by recent figures from Cambridge University showing that around half of its students are still from private fee paying schools. The existence of the monarchy and hereditary titles still provides a noticeable statement on Britain's 'ancien regime' structure, suggesting a continuation of inherent influence and privilege. Despite equality advances in recent years, it is difficult to perceive the honour system as essentially other than remaining harnessed to class rather than achievement, with the lowest level, the MBE, being the common award for the masses. Culture too betrays George Orwell's 'most class ridden country under the sun'. BBC Radio 4, and its 'thought for the day', remains the house station for the professional classes and 'good country stock' exclusivity. The television programmes we watch, for example the 'Bucket' family - no that's 'Bouquet' - in 'Keeping Up Appearances', contain clear class patterns. Thus all aspects of daily life provide a constant testament to the endurance of Britain's class structure. Class is not only about discourse and language; there is reality as well as representation. <fnote>Cited in Jonathan Petre, 'Society is still riven by class, says Carey', *The Independent*, 30 October 2002 </fnote><fnote>Nicole Martin, 'Arrogant Britain is split by class, claim foreigners', *The Independent*, 10 November 2000

Cited in Rachel Sylvester, 'Minister attacks 'obscene' Oxbridge class gap', The Independent 6 December 2003 Ibid Laura Clark, 'Cambridge says no to 5,000 pupils with three A grades', The Daily Mail, 13 March 2004 Cited in Andrew Adonis and Stephen Pollard, *A Class Act* (London, 1997), p. ix. To conclude, despite a climate in which the old metanarratives are seen as intellectually bankrupt and it is claimed that social identities are created by discourse, class remains of fundamental importance. Underpinning the debates is a constant and perhaps non-solvable epistemological problem - what is class? Much of the critique proclaiming the 'death of class' has only focused on its more Marxist reductive definitions and inability to look beyond the economic world. Although, no longer holding the master key to unlocking the entire historical process as seasoned Marxists would assert, class retains an analytical purchase in examining social structures, hierarchies and collective groupings, particularly when used in conjunction with race and gender, in an inter-linked 'Holy Trinity'. Furthermore, class is not just an esoteric occupation, consumed in the world of theory, but has a reality on the streets of modern Britain. To believe that class is not 'real' is only a prerogative of those unaffected by its inherent exclusions and prejudices. Ultimately, this is not the eschatological end for class as an operative word, and there is certainly no need to find a new theoretical terra firma to replace it. It is simply a matter of recognising a suitable resting-place for it between the economic reductionism of Marxist historians and the nihilistic and subjective world of Postmodernism and linguistics.

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The intention of this paper is move outward from new and old statistical empirical evidence, found on the one hand in the National Archives (PRO) and the RAF Museum Archive, and on the other, in existing secondary literature, and ask what this reveals about British air strategy in the 1920s and 1930s. The methodology used is to take researched evidence, portray it in the form of charts, data bases or spreadsheets, and then use this IT generated information as the foundation for discussion. The archive material was not examined with any pre-conceived conclusions in mind. It will be our job to use all the empirical meat to create an interpretable abstract of air strategy. We will question whether these sources either perpetuate or shed new light on existing discourse. Along the road the sources will be challenged for their usefulness as historical pieces of evidence. As a point of entry into the mise-en-scène of air strategy in the 1920s, let us analyse a RAF proposed peace strength chart (Appendix 1), as laid down by the Chief of the Air Staff in a November 1918 paper. Figure 1 below, which is drawn from this Appendix, illustrates the proposed location of the squadrons. Most significantly, the Figure expounds the increasing importance placed by strategists on using air power in the empire, with 34 squadrons placed in colonial possessions. The Chief enthused that 'British possessions...are spread over a wide area and aircraft should prove of the greatest service'. Aircraft were seen as a form of control without occupation, providing a cheap and ubiquitous means of imperial policing. He also opined that 'on the conclusion of peace all available aircraft material should be utilised...in the Dominions and India'. Although this kind of commitment is not realised in the Figure, it shows that air strategists were starting to see aircraft within the typology of imperialism, as a possible means of lightening the white man's burden. However, the Figure is fundamentally flawed in understanding air strategy. It is only an aspiration of air strength in the coming 1920s and does not take into account the financial or procurement feasibility of its estimations. Moreover, in its rich dedication to the supposed war-winning bombers (shown at Figure 2 below), the source bears the fingerprints of the Air Staff's political motive to protect the service from the crossfire of its seniors and attempts to undermine its autonomy.



<fnote>The National Archives, AIR 8/6. Attached memorandum to Proposed Peace Strength by Chief of the Air Staff, November 1918 2Ibid </fnote><fnote></fnote><figure/>Overall, the Figure is an idealist snapshot that ultimately is best at revealing Air Staff pressure on air strategy, captured in a accompanying remark by the Chief - 'we wish to turn our swords into ploughshare... but not so fast' - than it is in understanding what actually happened in the 1920s. <fnote>Ibid </fnote>It is now important to focus our attention on the true position of the RAF in the 1920s. We can do this through the lens of air service expenditure estimates at Appendix 2 and the resultant Figure 3 below. <figure/>It is clear that the earlier optimism of the Air Staff proved ephemeral, as air service expenditure initially sharply fell, and then remained relatively austere. The Figure supports existing discourse about air strategy, which contends that the RAF just about 'held on' during its cradle days, in the face of ferocious economic retrenchment, the Ten-Year Rule and a zetheist that condemned recourse to conflict. The impact of the imposed permanent war planning blight, is particularly evident if we note the acute fall in Technical and Warlike Stores estimates in the Appendix - elements that constitute the kernel of aggressive air strength - from £6,172,850 in 1920 to £1,295,000 in 1922. It is also significant to note from that source that research was particularly barren throughout the period, falling from £2,575,540 in 1920 to £498,000 in 1929. This goes a long way in explaining the poor quality of aircraft the RAF possessed as late as 1934, still consisting of inchoate wooden biplanes. The data also reveal that air strategy was far from a blueprinted plan, and was in fact often pragmatic and respondent to changes in geopolitik. For example, the slight rise in expenditure in 1924 can be seen as a direct response to the perceived threat of the Armée de l'Air emerging from 1923. However, the data has limitations that prevent a challenge to the existing historiography. They give no indication of how many planes were actually produced or what important fields of operation fared better than others. How far was the empire really given wings as the Chief of the Air Staff had proposed in 1918? They also do not offer any information on the Army and Navy, against which to draw priority comparisons; and industrial capacity is unknown. Moving into the 1930s, let us start by examining the early years, before any significant expenditure rise occurred. Again, we will move our discussions from the empirical base of Appendix 2, as reproduced in Figure 4 below. <figure/>The Figure shows that air service expenditure in the years 1930-34 also remained relatively low and stable; this can be seen as an indication of the government's first strategy to avert fears of the knock out blow, through the panacea of air disarmament. The knock out blow principle is important, as it weighs so heavily on air strategy throughout the 1930s. Founded in the futurological literature of HG Wells - 'after the smashing of City Hall...the white flag had been hoisted' - and politically confirmed in Baldwin's famous dictum 'the bomber will always get through', the knock out blow endangered the heart of Empire for the first time. This anxiety was reinforced by the Great Depression, where it was felt that a major dislocation, such as war, would catastrophically weaken the durability of industrialised society. In the context of increasing demands to put Britain's financial house in order, and in preparation for the international Disarmament Conference in 1932, an air disarmament strategy was the diplomats preferred negotiating hand. Our sources support this policy. Funding of the important Technical and Warlike Stores element remained about the same between 1930 and 1934. A consequence of this was that production became devoted simply to re-equipping old planes. An illustration of this was an apparent 'moratorium' in number of new airframes being produced, as shown in Figure 5 below. <fnote>H G Wells, *The War in the Air* (London, 1908), p. 130. 5 Cited in Uri Bailer, *The Shadow of the Bomber: The Fear of Air Attack and British Politics* (London, 1980), p. 14. </fnote><fnote></fnote><figure/>However, a glaring limitation to the data is again the absence of plane types and their contribution towards the overall force mix and objectives. Focusing now on the

period 1934 to 1938, before the financial picture would be dramatically changed by war, Figure 6 below illustrates that these years were nonetheless marked by a massive increase in air service expenditure. Appendix 2 indicates that the Technical and Warlike Stores indicator rose by a staggering 337 per cent, whilst two major supplementary estimates were added in 1935 and 1936, amounting to £17,000,000. The source shows Britain dedicating greater spending to research (99 per cent), which may go some way in explaining the relative superiority of British planes by 1939. The *prima facie* backdrop to the data is the failure of air disarmament and the *r vanchiste* position of Germany. Indeed, the British Foreign Secretary opined in 1935, 'the verb to disarm should be classified by grammarians as a defective verb'. However, these two reasons represent the mere surface disturbance and crests of foam behind the policy of increased air expenditure, and do not engage with policymaker's more directed mentalit s. To understand this, we need to examine the type of planes being produced. Cited in Uri Bailer, *The Shadow of the Bomber: The Fear of Air Attack and British Politics* (London, 1980), p. 9. The various air schemes (Appendix 3) developed and amended from 1933 onwards, outlining the types and numbers of planes required for the front line by a certain date, provide the key to unlocking the deeper roots associated with air policy in this period. Figure 7 below, produced from this Appendix, shows that the Britain was increasingly dedicating her resources to bombers. With the collapse of air disarmament talks, following the ignominious end to the Geneva Conference, policymakers sought a new means to prevent the knock out blow. It was axiomatic to air strategy that a commitment to building a bomber force would act as a deterrent against German air attack, presaging the Cold War concept of Mutually Assured Destruction. Increasing the number of bombers from 476 in 1934 to 1589 by 1937, as shown in the Appendix, worked under the belief that 'qui desiderat pacem, praeparet bellum'. On a diplomatic level, it was felt that a bomber force might bring Germany back to the Conference table. On a political level, it allayed public fears about a lack of preparation for air attack. The data also reveal a proportionally sharp increase of bomber requirements from February 1936 (see Figure 7) onwards. This can be seen as an equalising knee-jerk response to Hitler's alarming 1935 parity-achievement claim, which 'set the Nazi cat squarely among the democratic pigeons'. One limitation to our source, however, is that it does not show the number of bombers required in a reserve capacity to sustain operations. This would distinguish absolutely how far Britain worked under the strategy of shop window deterrence. Nevertheless, this source illustrates that air strategy was doing far more than aimlessly stirring Britain from her slumbers as Figure 6 suggests, and was in fact, in its dedication to bombers, a piece of political conjuring to hypnotise its audience. Cited in John Terraine, *A Time for Courage: The RAF in the European War 1939-1945* (New York, 1985), p. 38 Denis Richards, *The Royal Air Force Volume 1: The Fight at Odds* (London, 1974), p. 12. The next area of our paper will examine the immediate pre-war years. Firstly, let us look at the data given in an Air Ministry report, as indicated in Figure 8 below, on the production of airframes between August 1938 and November 1939. It is clear that, from January 1939, airframe manufacturers started to exceed their production promises. These promises would have been established with policymakers in the deterrence by parity years. Although not explicit in the chart, we can draw three possible conclusions from this. The surpassing of airframe guarantees can almost incontestably be seen as the final nail in the coffin for the parity strategy, as the government encouraged air manufacturers to move towards a war footing. Not only had hopes of an air convention been lost but also the promises of Munich seemed long forgotten. Britannia's trident was now a bayonet and her shield a gas mask. Less probably, it could reflect that manufacturers had simply become more efficient in their production, no longer cruising at barely economical speed. More sinisterly, the data could suggest production

profiteering, as captured in the illustration below (albeit in 1935).  Ultimately, however, the source is best at confirming the end of air parity, than it is at hinting at more polemical speculations. However, these delivery numbers fail to paint the whole picture. We need to examine the types of planes produced. Figure 9, working on a microcosmic level of production, shows the number of Spitfires delivered from the Eastleigh Production Facility.  It is quite apparent that a significant rise in production occurred from October 1938 onwards. However, this source is fundamentally limited in understanding air strategy, as Spitfires were neither the archetypal fighter in 1938-9 nor accounted for the bulk of the fighter force. Hurricane production is also required, in order to obtain a true picture of any significant change in production, and ergo air strategy. The difference in orders was 8647 more Hurricanes (Appendix 4). Importantly, Figure 10 below shows that from June 1938 the number of all fighters being delivered rose feverishly.  This supports existing discourse, which argues that policymakers from early 1938 onwards increased fighter production for air defence purposes. A 1938 Command Paper reflects this, lamenting the failure of the bomber deterrence strategy, and stating 'taking risks for peace has not removed the dangers of war'. Major technological improvements with fighter capability, coupled with the coming of radar, presented the  Command Paper, Statement Relating to Defence: Presented by the Primeminister to Parliament 3 March 1938 (London, 1938), p. 4.  possibility of withstanding the knock out blow. This in turn threatened Germany with the prospect of a long war, which was arguably a more credible deterrent than simply a bomber build up, given the greater long term resources of the Empire. However, this Figure has a limitation of its own, because it does not tell us the relative fighter position vis-a-vis the wider picture of total aircraft production and in particular that of bombers. To combat these problems, we can refer to the data provided in the Cabinet approved air schemes L and M (Appendix 3). The two pie charts below comprising Figure 11 compare the required aircraft by proportion of all total planes in April 1938 and November 1938.  It is immediately apparent that only a small shift away from bombers towards fighters occurred. This is by no means supportive of existing discourse. Literature on 1930's air power recognises the shift but argues that it was much more pronounced, with production geared three to one in favour of fighters. However, Figure 11 indicates that, in receiving well over 40 per cent of total aircraft production, the bomber remained the main player in air strategy, notwithstanding a greater emphasis to fighters. Thus, the pie charts provide an empirically tested challenge to the current epistemological understanding of the period. The final part of this paper will question the common usage by contemporary historians of simple comparative air power strength charts, as exemplified by Figure 12 below.  Use of such charts to critique Britain's air strategy vis-a-vis other nations to illustrate Britain's 'dreadful note of preparation' is potentially too shallow. Although not wishing to be overly judgmental - this would require an exhaustive analysis far beyond the scope of this paper - it is essential that we lay bare certain qualifications the air historian needs to comprehend if he or she wishes to use such charts as an empirical authority. It is difficult to compare aircraft production in basic numerical terms, as the quality of aircraft varied greatly from country to country and year to year and was driven by different operational demands. Furthermore the numbers include  Denis Richards, *The Royal Air Force Volume 1: The Fight at Odds* (London, 1974), p. 12.  more than front line types (for example, Germany devoted far larger amounts of production than Britain to trainers), and they give us no insight into how many of the aircraft delivered were immediately deployable, through pilot availability and other factors. Also ignored in assessing proportional difference in air strength is the contribution of anti-aircraft defences. The contemporary historian, therefore, needs to take these sensitivities in his metaphorical knapsack when he enters the archives. To conclude, it has been the

intention of this paper to work with primary and secondary statistical source material obtained from the National Archives, the RAF Museum and existing literature, in an effort to see what estimate and production data reveal about air strategy in the 1920s and 1930s. Much of the evidence has converged with existing historiographical discourse, outlining a gradual maturity of air strategy, extending from labouring within the parameters of a restricted budget through to the mantra of home defence. But some of the recently researched material sheds new light on the subject. For example, our data on fighter requirements refutes existing understanding that air strategy moved absolutely from bombers to fighters in the years 1938 to 1939. We have also suggested that certain sources, particularly comparative charts, remain too simplistic in composition to hold any more than mere subjective value. Furthermore, the usefulness of solely Air Ministry derived sources, such as the proposed peace strength chart, are somewhat sullied because their technical estimates were shaped by non-financial predilections and bias. Although ultimately recognising, as Clifford Geertz laments 'what we call our data are really our own constructions of other people's constructions', the charts here, despite certain limitations, not only move our understanding of air strategy slowly towards a more definitive picture but also hint at possible areas for further in-depth study. Indeed, there remains a vast sum of non-researched information relating to air strategy in the 1920s and 1930s waiting for the historian in the archives. Arguably, what our fighter discovery shows above all is that literature on air strategy in the 1920s and 1930s has itself become a too entrenched 'matter of faith'. It is thus the job of the air historian to revise further the subject, particularly the years 1938 to 1939, in greater detail. <fnote><sup>11</sup> Clifford Geertz, *The Interpretation of Cultures* (New York, 1973), p. 9. </fnote>

### Appendix 3: Formulae used

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Examples of Chi Square Test

Observed	Part of speech	BUiD	BAWE	
	Hedging modal auxiliary	1661	1617	3278
	Hedging adverbs	723	1096	1819
	Hedging verbs	691	1026	1717
	Hedging adjectives	94	200	294
	Adverbial phrase	66	50	116
	Hedging noun	11	20	31
	Noun phrase	5	13	18
	Total	3240	4002	7273

Expected	Part of speech	BUiD	BAWE	
	Hedging modal auxiliary	1460.294239	1803.73381	3278
	Hedging adverbs	810.3341125	1000.912691	1819
	Hedging verbs	764.8948164	944.7867455	1717
	Hedging adjectives	130.9720885	161.7747834	294
	Adverbial phrase	51.67606215	63.82950639	116
	Hedging noun	13.80998213	17.05788533	31
	Noun phrase	8.018699299	9.904578578	18
	Total	3240	4002	7273

Observed minus expected	200.705761	-186.73381
	-87.33411247	95.08730923
	-73.89481644	81.2132545
	-36.97208855	38.22521655
	14.32393785	-13.82950639
	-2.809982126	2.942114671
	-3.018699299	3.095421422

O-E squared	40282.80251	34869.51579
	7627.247201	9041.596376
	5460.443897	6595.592707
	1366.935332	1461.167181
	205.1751956	191.2552471
	7.895999547	8.656038736
	9.112545456	9.581633778

O-E Squared/E	27.58540124	19.3318524
	9.41247207	9.033351719
	7.13881671	6.981038566
	10.43684457	9.032107165
	3.970410807	2.996345388
	0.571760302	0.507450869
	1.136411919	0.967394393

p 3.14317E-21

DF	R-1	6
	C-1	1
	(R-1)( C-1 )	6

### Appendix 4: Detailed frequencies of adverbials of degree

Minimisers in the two corpora			
BUiD		BAWE	
Word	Freq	Word	Freq
at_least	22	at_least	45
at_all	13	at_all	23
least	12	hardly	18
little	3	little	15
hardly	3	least	11
		barely	8
		to_say_the_least	1
		scarcely	1

Compromisers in the two corpora			
BUiD		BAWE	
Word	Freq	Word	Freq
quite	36	quite	70
rather	14	rather	33
sufficiently	3	sufficiently	10
to_an_extent	1	reasonably	7
reasonably	1	in_some_way	4
pretty	1	to_a_certain_extent	2
to_a_certain_extent	1	marginally	2
		pretty	1

Approximators in the two corpora			
BUiD		BAWE	
Word	Freq	Word	Freq
almost	38	almost	49
about	30	closely	28
in_a_way	23	fairly	15
around	14	more_or_less	12
approximately	13	nearly	10
closely	12	about	10
nearly	12	roughly	8
virtual	10	as_much_as	8
practically	9	in_a_way	7
fairly	7	virtually	7
as_much_as	5	around	5
semi	5	approximately	5

Approximators in the two corpora			
BUiD		BAWE	
Word	Freq	Word	Freq
quasi	4	broadly	3
close_to	3	practically	3
more_or_less	3	close_to	3
approximate	2	just_about	2
up_to_2	1	or_so	2
up_to_12	1	something_like	2
roughly	1	somewhere_in_the_region_of	1
moderately	1	up_to_1994	1
up_to_870	1	round_about	1
		up_to_12	1
		near_to	1
		pretty_much	1
		up_to_twenty	1
		approximate	1
		up_to_18	1
		verges_on	1

### Appendix 5: Detailed Frequencies of Hyland's searched lists

Adverb	BUIID	BAWE
About= approximately	40	13
Almost= nearly	40**	49
Apparently	5	13
approximately	15	5
around= approximately	18	14
Broadly	0	3
Essentially	8	30
Fairly	7	15
Frequently	26	14
Generally	39	57

Adverb	BUIID	BAWE
Quite	36	71
Rather***	109	195
Relatively	16	31
Roughly	1	9
Sometimes	43**	48
Somewhat	14	13
Typically	13	19
Uncertainly	0	0
Unclearly	0	0
Unlikely	3	8
Usually**	62	50
Total	718	1096



Verb	BUiD	BAWE
Appear	5	37
Appeared	1	6
Appears	5	57
Argue	28	55
Argued	32	63
Argues	42	96
Assume	9	30
Assumed	11	24
Claim	15	39
Claimed	19	12
Claims	45	63
Estimate	1	3
Estimated	3	2
Feel	78	68
Feels	7	14
Felt	19	48
Guess	7	1
Indicate	35	22
Indicated	21	14
Indicates	20	19
Postulate	0	5
Postulated	0	3
Postulates	1	2
Seems	37	87

Adjective	BUiD	BAWE
Apparent	4	35
doubtful	0	3
Plausible	0	3
Possible	73	129
Presumable	0	0
Probable	1	6
Typical	12	17
Uncertain	2	3
Unclear	2	4
Total	94	200

Adverb	BUiD	BAWE
Largely	8	21
Likely	27	57
Mainly	67**	29
Maybe	8	10
Mostly	22	10
Often	66**	166
Perhaps	8	81
Plausibly	0	0
Possibly	7	24
Presumably	1	3
Probably	11	38

Suggest	22	43
Suggested	69	31
Suggests	43	55
Suppose	1	1
Supposed	38	16
Supposes	0	1
Suspect	0	2
Suspects	0	0
Tend to	27	21
Tends to	5	9
Tended to	3	8
Total	691	1026

Modal Auxiliary	BUiD	BAWE
Could	258	319
Couldn't	0	1
May	282	347
Might	193	131
Ought	16	21
Should	536	315
Would	376	481
Wouldn't	0	2
Total	1661	1617

Noun phrase	BUiD	BAWE	Adverbial phrase	BUiD	BAWE
certain amount	0	2	From my perspective	0	0
certain extent	1	8	From our perspective	0	0
certain level	4	3	From this perspective	2	5
Total	5	13	In general	49	28
			In most cases	3	4
			In most instances	0	0
			In my opinion	7	5
			In my view	0	3
			In this view	0	0
			In our opinion	0	0
			In our view	0	0
			On the whole	5	5
			To my knowledge	0	0
			Total	66	50

### Appendix 6: Concordances of the extraposition it.....that

N	Concordance	Word #	%
1	ndresen, Boud & Cohen (2000). It is claimed that there is no	76	2.00%
2	ny research (Creswell, 2009). It is important that strict et	2895	72.00%
3	velop their language ability. It is clear that teachers can	1492	38.00%
4	in a sentence. For all above, it is concluded that the UAE E	3836	91.00%
5	the classroom. Additionally, it is believed that sharing an	1613	42.00%
6	se is in a daily basis. Also, it is found that students use	2901	64.00%
7	rhythm and intonation. Also, it is obvious that the main di	2307	59.00%
8	lications are substantial and it is imperative that the rese	312	9.00%
9	he ideas for reading page and it is interesting that teacher	1579	50.00%
10	curriculum and this approach, it is obvious that it is becom	3194	81.00%
11	the course book is authentic. It is believed that it is nece	2288	58.00%
12	sons to teach on daily basis. It is expected that some of th	2503	74.00%
13	tificate pages. In the blurb, it is stated that Reading ‘Tim	760	24.00%
14	methodology of the text book, it was noticed that the check	3088	84.00%
15	h pronunciation very briefly, it was noticed that some essen	3535	81.00%
16	teaching practices in class. It is agreed that lesson obser	2093	75.00%
17	interaction in the classroom. It is found that there are act	4168	99.00%
18	is another challenge to CLT. It is argued that, as the appr	2213	58.00%
19	ative data will be collected. It is hoped that through the t	413	12.00%
20	ie.” Based on those comments, it is clear that there are a l	3444	81.00%
21	le. 5.Conclusion To conclude, it is clear that whatever is c	3878	93.00%
22	ith all the above considered, it is noticeable that this tex	2125	58.00%
23	Teaching and learning content It is clear that New Cutting E	1969	54.00%
24	us. In the two conversations, it is noted that both of them	2764	66.00%
25	ts. Research questions: Could it be said that moral reasonin	2171	64.00%
26	e two types of language data. It is noted that the authentic	2746	66.00%
27	urement, delivery and design. It is noticed that researches	609	23.00%
28	has not been fully developed, it was recognized that expandi	1848	45.00%
29	ding the level of difficulty, it was found that the activiti	2697	62.00%
30	d with learning disabilities. It is understandable that many	1933	59.00%
31	seventh- grade at SAIS U.A.E. It is expected that the result	2321	79.00%
32	long experience in education, it is obvious that switching t	1251	28.00%
33	ters affecting the education. It is expected that this resea	2302	82.00%
34	tudy is quality of education. It is predicted that the study	769	26.00%
35	r competency-based education, it is claimed that there is no	2462	62.00%
36	on-native speaker of English. It is logical that teachers wh	2194	49.00%
37	ocation Grade 10’ evaluation. It is demonstrated that 59 (5%	3041	82.00%
38	lls After a close evaluation, it is clear that the productiv	2328	59.00%
39	y marginalisation of females. It is said that there cannot b	2237	56.00%
40	lopment of educational field. It is believed that education	38	1.00%
41	e appendices C & D). Finally, it was noticed that the units’	3936	90.00%
42	ally negotiated. Furthermore, it is obvious that second lang	829	20.00%
43	in the textbook. Furthermore, it was found that the dominanc	4227	96.00%
44	of any course. So in general it is understood that a syllab	216	5.00%
45	forts to reach it. Generally, it is thought that adhering to	2392	97.00%
46	s spreading across the globe. It is argued that the Global E	103	3.00%

47	everything around the globe. It looks like that globalizati	41	1.00%
48	trol and experimental groups. It is advisable that teachers	102	4.00%
49	ated that: On the other hand, it was found that the main inh	2440	76.00%
50	SL teaching. On the one hand, it is true that there is some	2438	62.00%
51	extbook is 'better'. However, it is viewed that 'level' is w	2186	59.00%
52	reading, and writing. However, it is hypnotized that teachers	3491	93.00%
53	he learning process. However, it is noticed that through thi	257	6.00%
54	et answers to his hypotheses. It is expected that there will	2649	78.00%
55	ecified forms in instruction. It was argued that such way wi	4010	96.00%
56	study conducted by Journeys, it is stated that "HMH program	1363	37.00%
57	, rank it as totally lacking. It is noticeable that the text	3472	93.00%
58	ered in the English language. It is critical that the resear	2207	60.00%
59	chers in the Emirate. Lastly, it is undeniable that schools	789	22.00%
60	ex tasks at all grade levels. It was noticed that two of the	1468	47.00%
61	an easily occur in real life. It is obvious that knowledge o	2318	58.00%
62	s have raised. In this light, it remains critical that teach	2152	54.00%
63	ve their progression. Likewise, it was perceived that using of	3094	91.00%
64	arn about the subject matter. It is claimed that such type o	449	11.00%
65	re impressive and meaningful. It is said that practice makes	3945	97.00%
66	th direct and indirect means; it is argued that leadership i	377	11.00%
67	agogy, and systems. Moreover, it is certain that schools are	1440	42.00%
68	Naseer give under their name .It is important that they writ	1779	45.00%
69	r all learners. Nevertheless, it is hypothesized that studen	315	11.00%
70	nd whether we like it or not, it is technology that conditio	768	22.00%
71	municative approach nowadays. It is advocated that vocabulary	1731	55.00%
72	and writing. In reading part it is ensured that students re	1304	33.00%
73	. 37). From this perspective, it is essential that all schoo	1353	39.00%
74	ctivate the learning process. It is advised that such activi	1908	61.00%
75	out more about this process. It is understood that a word i	629	15.00%
76	social network questionnaire. It is critical that this quest	2564	69.00%
77	s for the research questions, it is necessary that the resea	1781	52.00%
78	nt-centered is not realistic. It is argued that if teachers	3136	79.00%
79	to the cultural restrictions. It is recommended that this st	2899	90.00%
80	her-ability students at SAIS. It is expected that the pretes	2237	76.00%
81	eds is weak in many schools." It is strange that in spite of	1147	33.00%
82	vernment and private schools, it was concluded that assessin	2292	57.00%
83	propriate for them. Secondly, it is crucial that the authors	4090	98.00%
84	As for the reliability side, it is believed that the use of	2489	76.00%
85	ctions devoted to each skill, it is evident that the book as	1658	39.00%
86	2 3.3.1 The Receptive Skills It is obvious that reading and	2020	52.00%
87	of the four language skills, it was apparent that there is	2768	64.00%
88	ol is a child's work place so it is vital that the education	986	35.00%
89	d scored the highest mean, so it is clear that learners most	2060	70.00%
90	in the material contents. So, it is unexpected that findings	723	17.00%
91	en research and practice. So, it is argued that instead of t	2245	82.00%
92	rough the different tests. So it is recommended that this co	4012	99.00%
93	ow he / she is growing up. So it is natural that they would	1150	40.00%

94	adictory to this approach. So it is considered that such an	3777	87.00%
95	rces of gender socialization. It was hypothesized that langu	33	1.00%
96	or bank. Approach to Speaking It was noticed that the textbo	2564	70.00%
97	ctive skills of the students. It is recommended that teacher	2360	77.00%
98	g environment. In this study, it was noticeable that the ver	747	17.00%
99	ted Limitations for the study It is expected that this study	2780	63.00%
100	rom the result of this study, it is concluded that integrati	4155	92.00%
101	ok as adequate. Surprisingly, it is illustrated that 349 (31	3089	83.00%
102	fact that in the same survey, it was noted that parents coul	287	10.00%
103	n of the task-based syllabus, it was hoped that the field ha	624	15.00%
104	omplish. Through those tasks, it is assumed that the student	433	10.00%
105	tionships with other teachers it was clear that an evidence	2233	82.00%
106	otions in effective teaching. It is argued that assessment g	3356	90.00%
107	four skills in the textbook, it is clear that there is imba	1627	39.00%
108	and selection in the textbook it was noticed that they compl	3309	76.00%
109	e of the language. Therefore, it is logical that in such typ	182	5.00%
110	nt and evaluation. Therefore, it is supposed that task diffi	1449	35.00%
111	characteristic of CLT .Thus, it is intended that acquiring	1297	34.00%
112	dren with special needs, thus it becomes important that evid	1070	46.00%
113	g listening to writing. Thus, it is important that teachers	3422	87.00%
114	ned the problem faced in UAE. It is evidenced that most of t	3624	86.00%
115	ps. In a research undertaken, it was observed that the child	3182	74.00%
116	zed to the topic of the unit. It is believed that this is ve	2180	56.00%
117	To give consent unreservedly, it is important that people, e	1888	65.00%
118	to make this book more useful it is recommended that: 1) A n	4160	98.00%
119	m the textbook point of view, it is thought that reading alo	3096	78.00%
120	egorize the textbook as weak. It is shown that 185 (16%) of	3074	83.00%
121	seful and preferable and why. It is obvious that the learner	2474	83.00%
122	e researcher's place of work, it is expected that the resear	2331	82.00%
123	L classes all over the world. It is believed that songs can	527	17.00%
124	focus on reading and writing. It is clear that listening and	2781	64.00%
125	activity. Approach to Writing It was noticed that writing wa	2976	81.00%

**Appendix 7: The first 1000 words on BUiD Wordlist**

<b>N</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Texts</b>	<b>%</b>
1	THE	22979	7.55	90	100.00
2	AND	10281	3.38	90	100.00
3	OF	10260	3.37	90	100.00
4	TO	9955	3.27	90	100.00
5	IN	8056	2.65	90	100.00
6	#	5920	1.94	90	100.00
7	A	5486	1.80	90	100.00
8	IS	4750	1.56	90	100.00
9	THAT	4055	1.33	90	100.00
10	STUDENTS	3212	1.06	89	98.89
11	BE	2948	0.97	90	100.00
12	FOR	2823	0.93	90	100.00
13	THIS	2685	0.88	90	100.00
14	AS	2616	0.86	90	100.00
15	ARE	2430	0.80	90	100.00
16	IT	2236	0.73	90	100.00
17	ON	2113	0.69	90	100.00
18	WILL	1947	0.64	85	94.44
19	WITH	1929	0.63	90	100.00
20	TEACHERS	1798	0.59	90	100.00
21	THEIR	1721	0.57	89	98.89
22	THEY	1429	0.47	89	98.89
23	BY	1382	0.45	90	100.00
24	LEARNING	1382	0.45	87	96.67
25	LANGUAGE	1358	0.45	63	70.00
26	STUDY	1259	0.41	83	92.22
27	RESEARCH	1188	0.39	78	86.67
28	WHICH	1123	0.37	90	100.00
29	NOT	1115	0.37	90	100.00
30	TEACHING	1078	0.35	86	95.56
31	HAVE	1071	0.35	89	98.89
32	AN	1063	0.35	90	100.00
33	OR	1054	0.35	90	100.00
34	FROM	1010	0.33	90	100.00
35	CAN	990	0.33	88	97.78
36	LEARNERS	933	0.31	68	75.56
37	TEXTBOOK	906	0.30	33	36.67
38	SCHOOL	872	0.29	78	86.67
39	BOOK	866	0.28	57	63.33
40	TEACHER	846	0.28	81	90.00
41	USE	830	0.27	87	96.67
42	ALSO	824	0.27	88	97.78
43	ALL	767	0.25	89	98.89
44	MORE	755	0.25	90	100.00
45	ABOUT	740	0.24	89	98.89
46	HAS	706	0.23	89	98.89
47	SKILLS	695	0.23	69	76.67
48	AT	687	0.23	90	100.00

49	ENGLISH	686	0.23	58	64.44
50	ONE	683	0.22	90	100.00
51	THEM	657	0.22	86	95.56
52	THERE	657	0.22	88	97.78
53	DIFFERENT	656	0.22	88	97.78
54	WRITING	647	0.21	58	64.44
55	S	645	0.21	79	87.78
56	USED	637	0.21	90	100.00
57	USING	635	0.21	86	95.56
58	WAS	618	0.20	82	91.11
59	EDUCATION	600	0.20	70	77.78
60	SOME	585	0.19	87	96.67
61	THESE	580	0.19	88	97.78
62	SCHOOLS	564	0.19	67	74.44
63	DATA	560	0.18	77	85.56
64	READING	555	0.18	52	57.78
65	SUCH	554	0.18	83	92.22
66	OTHER	553	0.18	90	100.00
67	WHAT	540	0.18	88	97.78
68	SHOULD	536	0.18	85	94.44
69	ACTIVITIES	525	0.17	67	74.44
70	CLASSROOM	515	0.17	69	76.67
71	WERE	510	0.17	79	87.78
72	BASED	497	0.16	80	88.89
73	HOW	480	0.16	86	95.56
74	METHOD	477	0.16	65	72.22
75	NEEDS	464	0.15	77	85.56
76	VOCABULARY	463	0.15	42	46.67
77	BETWEEN	458	0.15	86	95.56
78	BUT	454	0.15	85	94.44
79	EACH	453	0.15	82	91.11
80	GROUP	453	0.15	65	72.22
81	MANY	449	0.15	79	87.78
82	RESEARCHER	449	0.15	59	65.56
83	QUESTIONS	448	0.15	78	86.67
84	TIME	445	0.15	90	100.00
85	I	444	0.15	64	71.11
86	EVALUATION	441	0.14	46	51.11
87	APPROACH	433	0.14	67	74.44
88	TEXTBOOKS	425	0.14	31	34.44
89	PROCESS	421	0.14	85	94.44
90	TWO	417	0.14	84	93.33
91	STUDENT	415	0.14	70	77.78
92	WELL	415	0.14	83	92.22
93	MOST	405	0.13	85	94.44
94	WHO	405	0.13	85	94.44
95	HELP	393	0.13	81	90.00
96	INFORMATION	389	0.13	75	83.33
97	BOTH	376	0.12	80	88.89
98	WOULD	376	0.12	70	77.78
99	IMPORTANT	373	0.12	83	92.22
100	THROUGH	373	0.12	80	88.89

101	BEEN	371	0.12	84	93.33
102	NEW	371	0.12	78	86.67
103	ITS	369	0.12	81	90.00
104	MATERIALS	357	0.12	52	57.78
105	NEED	351	0.12	81	90.00
106	UAE	350	0.11	46	51.11
107	INTO	348	0.11	83	92.22
108	WORDS	347	0.11	60	66.67
109	RESULTS	343	0.11	76	84.44
110	SYLLABUS	342	0.11	32	35.56
111	WHEN	342	0.11	85	94.44
112	EDUCATIONAL	335	0.11	65	72.22
113	OUT	335	0.11	86	95.56
114	PRACTICE	335	0.11	60	66.67
115	WAY	334	0.11	78	86.67
116	METHODS	331	0.11	76	84.44
117	DO	321	0.11	73	81.11
118	ORDER	320	0.11	74	82.22
119	ANY	318	0.10	85	94.44
120	THAN	316	0.10	80	88.89
121	WORK	313	0.10	73	81.11
122	HE	310	0.10	66	73.33
123	SECOND	310	0.10	72	80.00
124	FIRST	309	0.10	89	98.89
125	TECHNOLOGY	305	0.10	39	43.33
126	CLASS	304	0.10	62	68.89
127	IF	302	0.10	79	87.78
128	SAME	302	0.10	80	88.89
129	CURRICULUM	301	0.10	59	65.56
130	LEVEL	298	0.10	78	86.67
131	KNOWLEDGE	293	0.10	72	80.00
132	P	293	0.10	60	66.67
133	VERY	291	0.10	75	83.33
134	ACCORDING	287	0.09	75	83.33
135	CONTENT	286	0.09	47	52.22
136	HOWEVER	286	0.09	71	78.89
137	MAY	282	0.09	68	75.56
138	ONLY	279	0.09	79	87.78
139	MAKE	277	0.09	78	86.67
140	CHILDREN	273	0.09	35	38.89
141	PARTICIPANTS	272	0.09	61	67.78
142	WHILE	269	0.09	70	77.78
143	BECAUSE	267	0.09	71	78.89
144	SO	264	0.09	71	78.89
145	MAIN	261	0.09	75	83.33
146	GIVEN	260	0.09	72	80.00
147	HIS	260	0.09	60	66.67
148	TEST	260	0.09	47	52.22
149	COULD	258	0.08	60	66.67
150	GRAMMAR	258	0.08	41	45.56
151	ANALYSIS	257	0.08	72	80.00
152	ROLE	257	0.08	67	74.44



153	TASKS	257	0.08	46	51.11
154	COURSE	254	0.08	48	53.33
155	DEVELOPMENT	252	0.08	63	70.00
156	WHERE	252	0.08	66	73.33
157	THEN	248	0.08	69	76.67
158	PROVIDE	246	0.08	71	78.89
159	UP	244	0.08	75	83.33
160	FOCUS	243	0.08	69	76.67
161	BEING	242	0.08	69	76.67
162	PART	240	0.08	71	78.89
163	TASK	240	0.08	47	52.22
164	UNDERSTANDING	240	0.08	65	72.22
165	SOCIAL	238	0.08	62	68.89
166	THEREFORE	238	0.08	60	66.67
167	WE	234	0.08	61	67.78
168	LEARN	230	0.08	66	73.33
169	THREE	228	0.07	71	78.89
170	SUPPORT	224	0.07	66	73.33
171	GOOD	223	0.07	64	71.11
172	PARENTS	219	0.07	33	36.67
173	AFTER	218	0.07	72	80.00
174	DESIGN	218	0.07	60	66.67
175	CONSIDERED	216	0.07	59	65.56
176	NO	214	0.07	73	81.11
177	STUDIES	209	0.07	61	67.78
178	GRADE	208	0.07	44	48.89
179	FINDINGS	207	0.07	61	67.78
180	LIKE	202	0.07	68	75.56
181	QUALITATIVE	201	0.07	54	60.00
182	SELF	201	0.07	53	58.89
183	STRATEGIES	201	0.07	59	65.56
184	ACADEMIC	200	0.07	51	56.67
185	EXAMPLE	200	0.07	58	64.44
186	LESSON	200	0.07	42	46.67
187	LISTENING	200	0.07	37	41.11
188	ANOTHER	199	0.07	74	82.22
189	FIND	197	0.06	65	72.22
190	FOLLOWING	197	0.06	73	81.11
191	SECTION	196	0.06	39	43.33
192	SPEAKING	196	0.06	42	46.67
193	FOUR	193	0.06	63	70.00
194	MIGHT	193	0.06	54	60.00
195	IMPORTANCE	192	0.06	73	81.11
196	ADDITION	191	0.06	58	64.44
197	INSTRUCTION	190	0.06	44	48.89
198	OWN	190	0.06	64	71.11
199	INTERVIEWS	189	0.06	51	56.67
200	CONDUCTED	188	0.06	65	72.22
201	EFFECTIVE	188	0.06	66	73.33
202	SINCE	185	0.06	65	72.22
203	LITERATURE	183	0.06	67	74.44
204	MY	183	0.06	33	36.67

205	CHECKLIST	182	0.06	25	27.78
206	DEVELOP	182	0.06	57	63.33
207	PERFORMANCE	181	0.06	48	53.33
208	CULTURE	180	0.06	41	45.56
209	DOES	180	0.06	66	73.33
210	RELATED	180	0.06	64	71.11
211	AL	179	0.06	48	53.33
212	UNIT	179	0.06	28	31.11
213	WORLD	178	0.06	59	65.56
214	LIFE	177	0.06	60	66.67
215	RESEARCHERS	176	0.06	54	60.00
216	TAUGHT	174	0.06	60	66.67
217	DESIGNED	172	0.06	58	64.44
218	PURPOSE	171	0.06	68	75.56
219	NUMBER	170	0.06	65	72.22
220	QUESTION	170	0.06	62	68.89
221	GIVE	169	0.06	68	75.56
222	GROUPS	169	0.06	51	56.67
223	LEARNER	169	0.06	39	43.33
224	COMMUNICATIVE	168	0.06	27	30.00
225	ENVIRONMENT	168	0.06	58	64.44
226	CONTEXT	167	0.05	48	53.33
227	PROBLEMS	167	0.05	47	52.22
228	PEOPLE	166	0.05	51	56.67
229	QUANTITATIVE	166	0.05	52	57.78
230	DURING	165	0.05	62	68.89
231	EXPERIMENTAL	164	0.05	21	23.33
232	FORM	164	0.05	66	73.33
233	CLASSES	163	0.05	48	53.33
234	GENERAL	163	0.05	61	67.78
235	WORD	162	0.05	41	45.56
236	COMMUNICATION	161	0.05	48	53.33
237	EXERCISES	161	0.05	32	35.56
238	HIGH	161	0.05	61	67.78
239	QUESTIONNAIRE	161	0.05	33	36.67
240	TOPICS	161	0.05	44	48.89
241	MOTIVATION	160	0.05	35	38.89
242	BETTER	159	0.05	65	72.22
243	MATERIAL	159	0.05	42	46.67
244	UNDERSTAND	159	0.05	67	74.44
245	REAL	157	0.05	53	58.89
246	TEXT	157	0.05	43	47.78
247	TYPES	157	0.05	49	54.44
248	BEST	156	0.05	59	65.56
249	VARIOUS	156	0.05	58	64.44
250	SUBJECT	155	0.05	48	53.33
251	GET	154	0.05	60	66.67
252	PRIVATE	154	0.05	40	44.44
253	TOWARDS	154	0.05	42	46.67
254	YEARS	154	0.05	62	68.89
255	POSITIVE	151	0.05	61	67.78
256	TAKE	151	0.05	67	74.44

257	YOU	151	0.05	31	34.44
258	CHILD	149	0.05	17	18.89
259	ESL	149	0.05	26	28.89
260	REVIEW	149	0.05	77	85.56
261	SPECIAL	149	0.05	25	27.78
262	TOPIC	149	0.05	55	61.11
263	THOSE	148	0.05	53	58.89
264	ABLE	147	0.05	63	70.00
265	ACTIVITY	147	0.05	42	46.67
266	SCIENCE	147	0.05	27	30.00
267	PROGRAM	146	0.05	38	42.22
268	WRITE	145	0.05	46	51.11
269	ATTITUDES	144	0.05	34	37.78
270	PRACTICES	144	0.05	36	40.00
271	E	143	0.05	47	52.22
272	EFFECT	143	0.05	47	52.22
273	PROBLEM	143	0.05	56	62.22
274	ASSESSMENT	142	0.05	42	46.67
275	FACT	141	0.05	56	62.22
276	TARGET	141	0.05	45	50.00
277	CERTAIN	140	0.05	47	52.22
278	CHANGE	140	0.05	50	55.56
279	CLEAR	140	0.05	67	74.44
280	EXPERIENCE	140	0.05	64	71.11
281	FEEDBACK	140	0.05	28	31.11
282	MUST	140	0.05	48	53.33
283	MADE	139	0.05	59	65.56
284	POST	139	0.05	31	34.44
285	TYPE	138	0.05	51	56.67
286	ACTION	137	0.05	30	33.33
287	LEADERSHIP	137	0.05	12	13.33
288	OVER	137	0.05	68	75.56
289	WRITTEN	137	0.05	44	48.89
290	IMPROVE	136	0.04	65	72.22
291	MODEL	136	0.04	38	42.22
292	INCLUDE	135	0.04	62	68.89
293	INCLUSION	135	0.04	14	15.56
294	METHODOLOGY	135	0.04	59	65.56
295	PROFESSIONAL	134	0.04	33	36.67
296	REQUIRED	134	0.04	54	60.00
297	WITHIN	134	0.04	50	55.56
298	BEFORE	133	0.04	54	60.00
299	QUALITY	133	0.04	52	57.78
300	SEE	133	0.04	56	62.22
301	ABILITY	132	0.04	52	57.78
302	TEACH	130	0.04	54	60.00
303	CONTROL	129	0.04	35	38.89
304	SURVEY	129	0.04	27	30.00
305	THUS	129	0.04	42	46.67
306	USEFUL	129	0.04	48	53.33
307	WITHOUT	129	0.04	58	64.44
308	FIELD	127	0.04	53	58.89

309	KNOW	127	0.04	46	51.11
310	TEXTS	127	0.04	29	32.22
311	ERRORS	126	0.04	25	27.78
312	HELPS	126	0.04	48	53.33
313	READ	126	0.04	41	45.56
314	EVERY	125	0.04	55	61.11
315	PLAN	125	0.04	53	58.89
316	RESULT	125	0.04	55	61.11
317	IMPACT	124	0.04	48	53.33
318	NEEDED	124	0.04	52	57.78
319	SPECIFIC	124	0.04	47	52.22
320	BOOKS	123	0.04	41	45.56
321	POINT	123	0.04	58	64.44
322	APPROPRIATE	122	0.04	52	57.78
323	DUE	122	0.04	55	61.11
324	ENHANCE	122	0.04	47	52.22
325	FOUND	122	0.04	59	65.56
326	GOING	122	0.04	41	45.56
327	STATES	122	0.04	49	54.44
328	LESSONS	121	0.04	43	47.78
329	ISSUES	120	0.04	48	53.33
330	ARAB	119	0.04	44	48.89
331	CLASSROOMS	119	0.04	51	56.67
332	EVALUATE	119	0.04	41	45.56
333	FURTHER	119	0.04	57	63.33
334	PROVIDES	119	0.04	52	57.78
335	SYSTEM	119	0.04	54	60.00
336	ANSWER	118	0.04	55	61.11
337	CONCEPT	118	0.04	48	53.33
338	ET	118	0.04	34	37.78
339	MOREOVER	118	0.04	48	53.33
340	CULTURAL	117	0.04	45	50.00
341	MUCH	117	0.04	53	58.89
342	PRE	117	0.04	42	46.67
343	REGARDING	117	0.04	45	50.00
344	TECHNIQUES	117	0.04	51	56.67
345	COLLECTED	116	0.04	49	54.44
346	OBJECTIVES	116	0.04	40	44.44
347	SUITABLE	116	0.04	49	54.44
348	APPROACHES	115	0.04	44	48.89
349	AREAS	114	0.04	47	52.22
350	DONE	114	0.04	52	57.78
351	FACTORS	113	0.04	42	46.67
352	INTRODUCTION	113	0.04	75	83.33
353	PROVIDED	113	0.04	52	57.78
354	RESOURCES	113	0.04	50	55.56
355	T	113	0.04	39	43.33
356	THINKING	113	0.04	44	48.89
357	AIMS	112	0.04	50	55.56
358	MENTIONED	112	0.04	54	60.00
359	TOOL	112	0.04	38	42.22
360	END	111	0.04	53	58.89

361	STATED	111	0.04	51	56.67
362	PAPER	110	0.04	42	46.67
363	SAMPLE	110	0.04	39	43.33
364	AMONG	109	0.04	53	58.89
365	ATTENTION	109	0.04	49	54.44
366	CREATE	109	0.04	52	57.78
367	INTERVIEW	109	0.04	38	42.22
368	RATHER	109	0.04	52	57.78
369	ALTHOUGH	108	0.04	48	53.33
370	CONCEPTS	108	0.04	38	42.22
371	SHE	108	0.04	39	43.33
372	WHETHER	108	0.04	50	55.56
373	HER	107	0.04	39	43.33
374	ITEMS	107	0.04	35	38.89
375	UNITED	107	0.04	39	43.33
376	CRITICAL	106	0.03	47	52.22
377	OUTCOMES	106	0.03	45	50.00
378	ESSENTIAL	105	0.03	47	52.22
379	GREAT	105	0.03	53	58.89
380	IDEAS	105	0.03	44	48.89
381	KEY	105	0.03	50	55.56
382	MEANS	105	0.03	46	51.11
383	MEET	105	0.03	45	50.00
384	PRESENT	105	0.03	46	51.11
385	ACQUISITION	104	0.03	29	32.22
386	STYLES	104	0.03	24	26.67
387	CRITERIA	103	0.03	35	38.89
388	DISCUSSION	103	0.03	41	45.56
389	IDENTIFY	103	0.03	38	42.22
390	PRESENTED	103	0.03	44	48.89
391	WAYS	103	0.03	55	61.11
392	DEVELOPING	102	0.03	48	53.33
393	GOALS	102	0.03	39	43.33
394	SENTENCES	102	0.03	30	33.33
395	WHY	102	0.03	45	50.00
396	COUNTRY	101	0.03	36	40.00
397	INCLUDES	101	0.03	48	53.33
398	ISLAMIC	101	0.03	7	7.78
399	LACK	101	0.03	45	50.00
400	SET	101	0.03	50	55.56
401	SIGNIFICANT	101	0.03	53	58.89
402	SITUATIONS	101	0.03	42	46.67
403	TOOLS	101	0.03	41	45.56
404	EFL	100	0.03	25	27.78
405	EMIRATES	100	0.03	36	40.00
406	GIVES	100	0.03	44	48.89
407	INCLUDED	100	0.03	40	44.44
408	INDIVIDUAL	100	0.03	46	51.11
409	INQUIRY	100	0.03	15	16.67
410	MATH	100	0.03	12	13.33
411	VIEW	100	0.03	44	48.89
412	ASKED	99	0.03	42	46.67

413	ASPECTS	99	0.03	43	47.78
414	AUTHOR	99	0.03	24	26.67
415	HAD	99	0.03	41	45.56
416	INVESTIGATE	99	0.03	45	50.00
417	TERMS	98	0.03	47	52.22
418	ACHIEVE	97	0.03	40	44.44
419	ENOUGH	97	0.03	50	55.56
420	DUBAI	96	0.03	25	27.78
421	FINALLY	96	0.03	46	51.11
422	PREVIOUS	96	0.03	52	57.78
423	AROUND	95	0.03	40	44.44
424	CASE	95	0.03	42	46.67
425	COLLECTION	95	0.03	47	52.22
426	COMMUNITY	95	0.03	27	30.00
427	PERSONAL	95	0.03	48	53.33
428	ETC	94	0.03	33	36.67
429	ISSUE	94	0.03	47	52.22
430	MAKING	94	0.03	50	55.56
431	MEANING	94	0.03	38	42.22
432	PLANNING	94	0.03	26	28.89
433	TERM	94	0.03	43	47.78
434	VALUE	94	0.03	42	46.67
435	ESPECIALLY	93	0.03	50	55.56
436	EVEN	93	0.03	49	54.44
437	GENDER	93	0.03	23	25.56
438	MIXED	93	0.03	34	37.78
439	PRACTICAL	93	0.03	40	44.44
440	SITUATION	93	0.03	41	45.56
441	DIFFICULTIES	92	0.03	27	30.00
442	LONG	92	0.03	50	55.56
443	TESTS	92	0.03	35	38.89
444	THEORY	92	0.03	32	35.56
445	COMMON	91	0.03	48	53.33
446	EXPERIENCES	91	0.03	42	46.67
447	FUTURE	91	0.03	45	50.00
448	LEVELS	91	0.03	49	54.44
449	SKILL	91	0.03	33	36.67
450	BECOME	90	0.03	52	57.78
451	DICTIONARIES	90	0.03	4	4.44
452	POINTS	90	0.03	49	54.44
453	SELECTED	90	0.03	43	47.78
454	STRATEGIC	90	0.03	12	13.33
455	APPENDIX	89	0.03	26	28.89
456	COMPREHENSION	88	0.03	29	32.22
457	DIFFERENCE	88	0.03	38	42.22
458	FIVE	88	0.03	46	51.11
459	GRAMMATICAL	88	0.03	32	35.56
460	INTERACTIVE	88	0.03	20	22.22
461	MAJOR	88	0.03	42	46.67
462	RELATIONSHIP	88	0.03	37	41.11
463	SUBJECTS	88	0.03	27	30.00
464	ACHIEVEMENT	87	0.03	36	40.00

465	AUTHENTIC	87	0.03	27	30.00
466	HAND	87	0.03	47	52.22
467	IDEA	87	0.03	44	48.89
468	INTERACTION	87	0.03	41	45.56
469	ME	87	0.03	24	26.67
470	PARTICULAR	87	0.03	45	50.00
471	PROVIDING	87	0.03	47	52.22
472	HAVING	86	0.03	46	51.11
473	LOCATION	86	0.03	11	12.22
474	OTHERS	86	0.03	51	56.67
475	RESPONSES	86	0.03	33	36.67
476	VARIETY	86	0.03	43	47.78
477	ABOVE	85	0.03	42	46.67
478	BELIEVE	85	0.03	40	44.44
479	CURRENT	85	0.03	38	42.22
480	EMOTIONAL	85	0.03	12	13.33
481	INTEGRATED	85	0.03	29	32.22
482	AGE	84	0.03	40	44.44
483	ARTICLE	84	0.03	31	34.44
484	DIFFICULT	84	0.03	51	56.67
485	NEGATIVE	84	0.03	34	37.78
486	SHOW	84	0.03	43	47.78
487	SUCCESS	84	0.03	40	44.44
488	CHOSEN	83	0.03	40	44.44
489	COMPLETE	83	0.03	47	52.22
490	DIRECT	83	0.03	29	32.22
491	EXAMINE	83	0.03	42	46.67
492	INFLUENCE	83	0.03	41	45.56
493	PROGRESS	83	0.03	42	46.67
494	PUBLIC	83	0.03	28	31.11
495	THEMSELVES	83	0.03	46	51.11
496	UNDER	83	0.03	40	44.44
497	VALUES	83	0.03	30	33.33
498	DAY	82	0.03	28	31.11
499	EFFECTIVENESS	82	0.03	33	36.67
500	EXPECTED	82	0.03	43	47.78
501	MORAL	82	0.03	4	4.44
502	THINK	82	0.03	43	47.78
503	TRADITIONAL	82	0.03	35	38.89
504	UNITS	82	0.03	19	21.11
505	YEAR	82	0.03	43	47.78
506	AREA	81	0.03	43	47.78
507	CANNOT	81	0.03	42	46.67
508	MAKES	81	0.03	48	53.33
509	OBSERVATION	81	0.03	36	40.00
510	SHOWS	81	0.03	46	51.11
511	STAGE	81	0.03	37	41.11
512	ALWAYS	80	0.03	39	43.33
513	DEVELOPED	80	0.03	42	46.67
514	DISABILITIES	80	0.03	10	11.11
515	EASY	80	0.03	41	45.56
516	LESS	80	0.03	45	50.00

517	PROGRAMS	80	0.03	29	32.22
518	SIX	80	0.03	38	42.22
519	COMPETENCY	79	0.03	6	6.67
520	CONVERSATION	79	0.03	21	23.33
521	DOWN	79	0.03	36	40.00
522	INTRODUCED	79	0.03	41	45.56
523	OBSERVATIONS	79	0.03	29	32.22
524	SIMPLE	79	0.03	42	46.67
525	START	79	0.03	44	48.89
526	FEEL	78	0.03	38	42.22
527	FOLLOW	78	0.03	43	47.78
528	LOT	78	0.03	35	38.89
529	ONLINE	78	0.03	23	25.56
530	SEVERAL	78	0.03	40	44.44
531	SOURCE	78	0.03	39	43.33
532	STYLE	78	0.03	25	27.78
533	TRAINING	78	0.03	36	40.00
534	HENCE	77	0.03	26	28.89
535	LOOK	77	0.03	41	45.56
536	PROPOSED	77	0.03	29	32.22
537	PUT	77	0.03	48	53.33
538	RANGE	77	0.03	40	44.44
539	REASON	77	0.03	47	52.22
540	SENTENCE	77	0.03	19	21.11
541	TAKEN	77	0.03	45	50.00
542	YOUR	77	0.03	32	35.56
543	INCREASE	76	0.02	40	44.44
544	MEASURE	76	0.02	32	35.56
545	PASSIVE	76	0.02	10	11.11
546	STILL	76	0.02	42	46.67
547	WHOLE	76	0.02	45	50.00
548	B	75	0.02	29	32.22
549	ENCOURAGE	75	0.02	41	45.56
550	INTERESTING	75	0.02	42	46.67
551	MINISTRY	75	0.02	25	27.78
552	PLACE	75	0.02	47	52.22
553	INSTRUCTIONAL	74	0.02	22	24.44
554	KIND	74	0.02	40	44.44
555	NECESSARY	74	0.02	45	50.00
556	OVERALL	74	0.02	36	40.00
557	VOICE	74	0.02	4	4.44
558	CITED	73	0.02	18	20.00
559	CORRECT	73	0.02	33	36.67
560	EFFECTS	73	0.02	33	36.67
561	ENABLE	73	0.02	36	40.00
562	EVALUATING	73	0.02	31	34.44
563	GOAL	73	0.02	29	32.22
564	IMPLEMENTATION	73	0.02	31	34.44
565	MANAGEMENT	73	0.02	25	27.78
566	POSSIBLE	73	0.02	48	53.33
567	SIMILAR	73	0.02	47	52.22
568	AFFECT	72	0.02	36	40.00



569	AIM	72	0.02	41	45.56
570	ANSWERS	72	0.02	39	43.33
571	COME	72	0.02	41	45.56
572	FACTOR	72	0.02	40	44.44
573	FURTHERMORE	72	0.02	37	41.11
574	QUESTIONNAIRES	72	0.02	28	31.11
575	APPLIED	71	0.02	42	46.67
576	ASK	71	0.02	34	37.78
577	AUTHORS	71	0.02	24	26.67
578	EXPLAIN	71	0.02	38	42.22
579	INCLUDING	71	0.02	46	51.11
580	INVOLVED	71	0.02	44	48.89
581	LIMITED	71	0.02	43	47.78
582	PLAY	71	0.02	38	42.22
583	SAID	71	0.02	33	36.67
584	COLLECT	70	0.02	34	37.78
585	DID	70	0.02	37	41.11
586	ENSURE	70	0.02	35	38.89
587	PARTICIPATE	70	0.02	36	40.00
588	CHALLENGES	69	0.02	29	32.22
589	D	69	0.02	37	41.11
590	FORMS	69	0.02	36	40.00
591	LEAD	69	0.02	44	48.89
592	LEXICAL	69	0.02	19	21.11
593	PHYSICAL	69	0.02	24	26.67
594	RELEVANT	69	0.02	43	47.78
595	STRONG	69	0.02	36	40.00
596	SUGGESTED	69	0.02	34	37.78
597	ACCESS	68	0.02	36	40.00
598	CHOICE	68	0.02	41	45.56
599	DOING	68	0.02	41	45.56
600	GIVING	68	0.02	39	43.33
601	INSIDE	68	0.02	25	27.78
602	JUST	68	0.02	34	37.78
603	PARTS	68	0.02	38	42.22
604	RICHARDS	68	0.02	21	23.33
605	ACTIVE	67	0.02	28	31.11
606	EXPLORE	67	0.02	37	41.11
607	INTERNET	67	0.02	21	23.33
608	LEADERS	67	0.02	14	15.56
609	MAINLY	67	0.02	38	42.22
610	NATURE	67	0.02	38	42.22
611	ORGANIZATION	67	0.02	30	33.33
612	PICTURE	67	0.02	33	36.67
613	SECTIONS	67	0.02	24	26.67
614	VALIDITY	67	0.02	30	33.33
615	AVAILABLE	66	0.02	40	44.44
616	BACKGROUND	66	0.02	43	47.78
617	CALLED	66	0.02	34	37.78
618	EDUCATORS	66	0.02	33	36.67
619	EXAMPLES	66	0.02	39	43.33
620	OFTEN	66	0.02	34	37.78

621	PROFICIENCY	66	0.02	26	28.89
622	RECEIVED	66	0.02	22	24.44
623	BEHAVIOR	65	0.02	22	24.44
624	C	65	0.02	28	31.11
625	COMPETENCE	65	0.02	18	20.00
626	COOPERATIVE	65	0.02	9	10.00
627	EASILY	65	0.02	35	38.89
628	FOCUSED	65	0.02	27	30.00
629	HIGHER	65	0.02	35	38.89
630	NATIVE	65	0.02	27	30.00
631	PERIOD	65	0.02	33	36.67
632	PERSPECTIVE	65	0.02	37	41.11
633	PRIMARY	65	0.02	24	26.67
634	PROMOTE	65	0.02	32	35.56
635	REASONS	65	0.02	36	40.00
636	STRUCTURE	65	0.02	30	33.33
637	TRY	65	0.02	32	35.56
638	VISUAL	65	0.02	19	21.11
639	AWARENESS	64	0.02	35	38.89
640	CONSIDERATION	64	0.02	43	47.78
641	EXTENT	64	0.02	35	38.89
642	FEATURES	64	0.02	31	34.44
643	FRAMEWORK	64	0.02	30	33.33
644	HERE	64	0.02	38	42.22
645	LIST	64	0.02	26	28.89
646	SHORT	64	0.02	36	40.00
647	THEORIES	64	0.02	29	32.22
648	ALLOW	63	0.02	38	42.22
649	DIFFERENCES	63	0.02	36	40.00
650	FLUENCY	63	0.02	21	23.33
651	INCLUSIVE	63	0.02	13	14.44
652	LAST	63	0.02	41	45.56
653	MEMBERS	63	0.02	32	35.56
654	SOCIETY	63	0.02	26	28.89
655	STRESS	63	0.02	26	28.89
656	SUCCESSFUL	63	0.02	35	38.89
657	CHANGES	62	0.02	33	36.67
658	CHAPTER	62	0.02	24	26.67
659	FOREIGN	62	0.02	28	31.11
660	GRADES	62	0.02	30	33.33
661	MALE	62	0.02	20	22.22
662	ONES	62	0.02	32	35.56
663	PRODUCE	62	0.02	31	34.44
664	THIRD	62	0.02	36	40.00
665	USUALLY	62	0.02	30	33.33
666	ALONG	61	0.02	31	34.44
667	CHECK	61	0.02	29	32.22
668	CONCLUSION	61	0.02	38	42.22
669	EFFECTIVELY	61	0.02	40	44.44
670	FAMILY	61	0.02	13	14.44
671	FUNCTIONS	61	0.02	26	28.89
672	INSTANCE	61	0.02	28	31.11

673	STEP	61	0.02	31	34.44
674	ADDED	60	0.02	31	34.44
675	ATTITUDE	60	0.02	23	25.56
676	DISCUSSED	60	0.02	39	43.33
677	FACE	60	0.02	29	32.22
678	LINGUISTIC	60	0.02	26	28.89
679	OPEN	60	0.02	35	38.89
680	OPPORTUNITIES	60	0.02	34	37.78
681	PICTURES	60	0.02	26	28.89
682	PROCEDURE	60	0.02	32	35.56
683	SETTING	60	0.02	32	35.56
684	TABLE	60	0.02	27	30.00
685	TOO	60	0.02	29	32.22
686	TREATMENT	60	0.02	19	21.11
687	VIEWS	60	0.02	30	33.33
688	WEEK	60	0.02	26	28.89
689	COUNTRIES	59	0.02	35	38.89
690	EVIDENCE	59	0.02	33	36.67
691	HIGHLY	59	0.02	32	35.56
692	IMPLEMENTED	59	0.02	31	34.44
693	INSTRUCTORS	59	0.02	15	16.67
694	INTEGRATION	59	0.02	22	24.44
695	INTENDED	59	0.02	32	35.56
696	NON	59	0.02	32	35.56
697	POLICY	59	0.02	26	28.89
698	POPULATION	59	0.02	23	25.56
699	POTENTIAL	59	0.02	31	34.44
700	RATIONALE	59	0.02	36	40.00
701	RULES	59	0.02	26	28.89
702	SWITCHING	59	0.02	4	4.44
703	THROUGHOUT	59	0.02	30	33.33
704	ARABIC	58	0.02	25	27.78
705	BEHIND	58	0.02	36	40.00
706	CONTAINS	58	0.02	25	27.78
707	FITNESS	58	0.02	3	3.33
708	FOCUSES	58	0.02	36	40.00
709	IELTS	58	0.02	5	5.56
710	INTEREST	58	0.02	34	37.78
711	PAST	58	0.02	29	32.22
712	PRONUNCIATION	58	0.02	19	21.11
713	SERIES	58	0.02	17	18.89
714	TOP	58	0.02	19	21.11
715	DIVORCE	57	0.02	2	2.22
716	ELEMENTS	57	0.02	35	38.89
717	FOLLOWED	57	0.02	31	34.44
718	OUR	57	0.02	30	33.33
719	OUTSIDE	57	0.02	34	37.78
720	PAGES	57	0.02	16	17.78
721	SHOWED	57	0.02	26	28.89
722	STATE	57	0.02	35	38.89
723	STRUCTURED	57	0.02	31	34.44
724	BUILD	56	0.02	41	45.56

725	DEAL	56	0.02	33	36.67
726	DIVIDED	56	0.02	32	35.56
727	INSTRUCTIONS	56	0.02	29	32.22
728	PAGE	56	0.02	14	15.56
729	REFLECT	56	0.02	33	36.67
730	STUDYING	56	0.02	35	38.89
731	UNIVERSITY	56	0.02	29	32.22
732	US	56	0.02	28	31.11
733	APPLY	55	0.02	34	37.78
734	CONDUCT	55	0.02	34	37.78
735	DAILY	55	0.02	29	32.22
736	DEFINED	55	0.02	31	34.44
737	FEMALE	55	0.02	24	26.67
738	IMPROVEMENT	55	0.02	28	31.11
739	KINESTHETIC	55	0.02	7	7.78
740	LIMITATIONS	55	0.02	30	33.33
741	NATIONAL	55	0.02	27	30.00
742	RELIABILITY	55	0.02	30	33.33
743	SAY	55	0.02	28	31.11
744	SCALE	55	0.02	23	25.56
745	THOUGH	55	0.02	25	27.78
746	WORKING	55	0.02	32	35.56
747	ADVANTAGES	54	0.02	33	36.67
748	ASSESS	54	0.02	27	30.00
749	BASIC	54	0.02	30	33.33
750	CHANCE	54	0.02	31	34.44
751	CODE	54	0.02	6	6.67
752	FEW	54	0.02	42	46.67
753	J	54	0.02	12	13.33
754	MALES	54	0.02	15	16.67
755	PROJECT	54	0.02	22	24.44
756	TAKING	54	0.02	35	38.89
757	THINGS	54	0.02	28	31.11
758	VARIABLES	54	0.02	22	24.44
759	ACROSS	53	0.02	28	31.11
760	AWARE	53	0.02	35	38.89
761	BASIS	53	0.02	36	40.00
762	DESIGNING	53	0.02	23	25.56
763	DISCUSS	53	0.02	32	35.56
764	GO	53	0.02	31	34.44
765	INDIVIDUALS	53	0.02	27	30.00
766	MULTIPLE	53	0.02	29	32.22
767	PEDAGOGY	53	0.02	14	15.56
768	SEEN	53	0.02	32	35.56
769	SHARE	53	0.02	41	45.56
770	STRATEGY	53	0.02	28	31.11
771	WANT	53	0.02	33	36.67
772	CARRIED	52	0.02	28	31.11
773	CENTERED	52	0.02	22	24.44
774	CLT	52	0.02	4	4.44
775	CONCLUDED	52	0.02	24	26.67
776	EXTRA	52	0.02	24	26.67

777	GUIDE	52	0.02	32	35.56
778	HIM	52	0.02	29	32.22
779	KNOWN	52	0.02	32	35.56
780	MAJORITY	52	0.02	29	32.22
781	OPINIONS	52	0.02	28	31.11
782	PRESENTATION	52	0.02	19	21.11
783	RIGHT	52	0.02	35	38.89
784	STANDARDS	52	0.02	22	24.44
785	WHEREAS	52	0.02	26	28.89
786	YOUNG	52	0.02	20	22.22
787	ABU	51	0.02	22	24.44
788	ADDRESS	51	0.02	31	34.44
789	CONSIDER	51	0.02	30	33.33
790	COVER	51	0.02	27	30.00
791	DHABI	51	0.02	22	24.44
792	EMOTIONS	51	0.02	4	4.44
793	EXERCISE	51	0.02	17	18.89
794	PRODUCTIVE	51	0.02	19	21.11
795	TIMES	51	0.02	28	31.11
796	TOGETHER	51	0.02	26	28.89
797	ASPECT	50	0.02	26	28.89
798	DIRECTED	50	0.02	26	28.89
799	EARLY	50	0.02	38	42.22
800	INDEPENDENT	50	0.02	29	32.22
801	INTERNATIONAL	50	0.02	28	31.11
802	ORGANIZED	50	0.02	31	34.44
803	PHYSICS	50	0.02	5	5.56
804	PRINCIPALS	50	0.02	9	10.00
805	REQUIRES	50	0.02	31	34.44
806	YET	50	0.02	28	31.11
807	ALLOWS	49	0.02	20	22.22
808	APPLYING	49	0.02	27	30.00
809	COMMUNICATE	49	0.02	24	26.67
810	COMPARED	49	0.02	29	32.22
811	DETAILS	49	0.02	31	34.44
812	DETERMINE	49	0.02	31	34.44
813	DIRECTLY	49	0.02	25	27.78
814	FINAL	49	0.02	28	31.11
815	FINDING	49	0.02	29	32.22
816	G	49	0.02	20	22.22
817	GAP	49	0.02	22	24.44
818	GOVERNMENT	49	0.02	20	22.22
819	LARGE	49	0.02	38	42.22
820	OBSERVED	49	0.02	32	35.56
821	ONCE	49	0.02	31	34.44
822	OPPORTUNITY	49	0.02	35	38.89
823	PUBLISHED	49	0.02	29	32.22
824	SENSE	49	0.02	28	31.11
825	ANALYZE	48	0.02	26	28.89
826	ANALYZED	48	0.02	26	28.89
827	APPLICATION	48	0.02	30	33.33
828	CHARACTERISTICS	48	0.02	26	28.89

829	CHOOSE	48	0.02	31	34.44
830	COGNITIVE	48	0.02	24	26.67
831	COMMENTS	48	0.02	16	17.78
832	COMPLEX	48	0.02	30	33.33
833	COMPREHENSIVE	48	0.02	26	28.89
834	EXAM	48	0.02	11	12.22
835	FEMALES	48	0.02	14	15.56
836	FOLLOWS	48	0.02	31	34.44
837	INSTRUMENT	48	0.02	26	28.89
838	INTELLIGENCE	48	0.02	5	5.56
839	REFERENCE	48	0.02	30	33.33
840	RELATION	48	0.02	26	28.89
841	SECONDARY	48	0.02	22	24.44
842	SHOWN	48	0.02	34	37.78
843	THEMES	48	0.02	21	23.33
844	ABILITIES	47	0.02	26	28.89
845	BEGINNING	47	0.02	32	35.56
846	BENEFITS	47	0.02	32	35.56
847	COURSEBOOK	47	0.02	5	5.56
848	IMPROVING	47	0.02	35	38.89
849	LATER	47	0.02	32	35.56
850	STAFF	47	0.02	21	23.33
851	STANDARD	47	0.02	21	23.33
852	STARTED	47	0.02	28	31.11
853	SUPPLEMENTARY	47	0.02	17	18.89
854	AIDS	46	0.02	16	17.78
855	ASKING	46	0.02	24	26.67
856	AUTONOMY	46	0.02	12	13.33
857	CONCERN	46	0.02	27	30.00
858	CONSISTS	46	0.02	32	35.56
859	COURSES	46	0.02	24	26.67
860	EXPLAINED	46	0.02	32	35.56
861	LOCAL	46	0.02	20	22.22
862	PARTICIPATION	46	0.02	24	26.67
863	PEDAGOGICAL	46	0.02	22	24.44
864	REVEALED	46	0.02	24	26.67
865	SELECTION	46	0.02	26	28.89
866	SMALL	46	0.02	30	33.33
867	THEME	46	0.02	14	15.56
868	WEEKS	46	0.02	23	25.56
869	ACTUALLY	45	0.01	24	26.67
870	ADEC	45	0.01	12	13.33
871	AVOID	45	0.01	26	28.89
872	CENTURY	45	0.01	10	11.11
873	CLAIMS	45	0.01	26	28.89
874	CLEARLY	45	0.01	30	33.33
875	COMPONENTS	45	0.01	26	28.89
876	CULTURES	45	0.01	22	24.44
877	EITHER	45	0.01	34	37.78
878	GETTING	45	0.01	33	36.67
879	MATTER	45	0.01	29	32.22
880	PREPARED	45	0.01	32	35.56

881	PROPOSAL	45	0.01	16	17.78
882	RESEARCHES	45	0.01	26	28.89
883	SPELLING	45	0.01	17	18.89
884	TALK	45	0.01	22	24.44
885	AUDIO	44	0.01	25	27.78
886	BELIEFS	44	0.01	23	25.56
887	BENEFIT	44	0.01	31	34.44
888	CONTEXTS	44	0.01	26	28.89
889	CRESWELL	44	0.01	18	20.00
890	CUNNINGSWORTH	44	0.01	13	14.44
891	DIFFICULTY	44	0.01	28	31.11
892	EFFORT	44	0.01	27	30.00
893	INSTRUMENTS	44	0.01	26	28.89
894	INTERVENTION	44	0.01	12	13.33
895	KUMARAVADIVELU	44	0.01	2	2.22
896	NOW	44	0.01	24	26.67
897	PRINCIPLES	44	0.01	19	21.11
898	PROCEDURES	44	0.01	27	30.00
899	PROCESSES	44	0.01	31	34.44
900	PROPER	44	0.01	26	28.89
901	RECOMMENDATIONS	44	0.01	31	34.44
902	RELIABLE	44	0.01	27	30.00
903	SERVE	44	0.01	24	26.67
904	SUFFICIENT	44	0.01	29	32.22
905	UPON	44	0.01	28	31.11
906	ACHIEVED	43	0.01	31	34.44
907	ADOPTED	43	0.01	27	30.00
908	BIAS	43	0.01	23	25.56
909	CONTINUOUS	43	0.01	19	21.11
910	CREATING	43	0.01	22	24.44
911	DETAILED	43	0.01	30	33.33
912	FIGURE	43	0.01	20	22.22
913	MEANINGFUL	43	0.01	25	27.78
914	NEXT	43	0.01	30	33.33
915	PER	43	0.01	23	25.56
916	PURPOSES	43	0.01	26	28.89
917	RECENT	43	0.01	33	36.67
918	SCORES	43	0.01	21	23.33
919	SLOW	43	0.01	7	7.78
920	SOMETIMES	43	0.01	26	28.89
921	SUGGESTS	43	0.01	26	28.89
922	USAGE	43	0.01	23	25.56
923	ACTUAL	42	0.01	25	27.78
924	ALREADY	42	0.01	30	33.33
925	ARGUES	42	0.01	21	23.33
926	IDENTIFIED	42	0.01	30	33.33
927	KEEP	42	0.01	37	41.11
928	MEAN	42	0.01	29	32.22
929	MODERN	42	0.01	24	26.67
930	MOTHER	42	0.01	13	14.44
931	PERCEPTIONS	42	0.01	23	25.56
932	PLAYS	42	0.01	30	33.33

933	PUPILS	42	0.01	12	13.33
934	REACH	42	0.01	28	31.11
935	VARIABLE	42	0.01	17	18.89
936	ACCURACY	41	0.01	16	17.78
937	AMOUNT	41	0.01	30	33.33
938	ATTAINMENT	41	0.01	7	7.78
939	CHALLENGE	41	0.01	24	26.67
940	EVALUATED	41	0.01	25	27.78
941	IMAGES	41	0.01	7	7.78
942	INPUT	41	0.01	23	25.56
943	INTRODUCE	41	0.01	29	32.22
944	MIDDLE	41	0.01	19	21.11
945	REQUIREMENTS	41	0.01	24	26.67
946	TONGUE	41	0.01	12	13.33
947	USES	41	0.01	25	27.78
948	ALMOST	40	0.01	25	27.78
949	BECOMES	40	0.01	27	30.00
950	CHECKLISTS	40	0.01	13	14.44
951	COMPARISON	40	0.01	21	23.33
952	CONTROLLED	40	0.01	22	24.44
953	ENDED	40	0.01	23	25.56
954	FOUNDATION	40	0.01	19	21.11
955	HUMAN	40	0.01	23	25.56
956	LISTEN	40	0.01	22	24.44
957	NATURAL	40	0.01	25	27.78
958	REPORT	40	0.01	23	25.56
959	RESPONSIBILITY	40	0.01	30	33.33
960	ROLES	40	0.01	18	20.00
961	SIGNIFICANCE	40	0.01	25	27.78
962	TARGETED	40	0.01	19	21.11
963	TRIANGULATION	40	0.01	16	17.78
964	VALUABLE	40	0.01	23	25.56
965	ADD	39	0.01	27	30.00
966	BASE	39	0.01	23	25.56
967	CONDUCTING	39	0.01	23	25.56
968	CORRECTION	39	0.01	11	12.22
969	COVERED	39	0.01	21	23.33
970	CREATED	39	0.01	23	25.56
971	DECIDE	39	0.01	26	28.89
972	DEGREE	39	0.01	28	31.11
973	ENABLES	39	0.01	25	27.78
974	ENGAGEMENT	39	0.01	21	23.33
975	GENERALLY	39	0.01	27	30.00
976	GUIDED	39	0.01	15	16.67
977	INVOLVES	39	0.01	27	30.00
978	LEADS	39	0.01	25	27.78
979	OBJECTIVE	39	0.01	30	33.33
980	REQUIRE	39	0.01	27	30.00
981	VERB	39	0.01	11	12.22
982	WEAKNESSES	39	0.01	24	26.67
983	AGAINST	38	0.01	22	24.44
984	BACK	38	0.01	25	27.78



985	BELL	38	0.01	12	13.33
986	CHALLENGING	38	0.01	22	24.44
987	COMPUTER	38	0.01	17	18.89
988	ELEMENT	38	0.01	22	24.44
989	FACILITATE	38	0.01	25	27.78
990	HOME	38	0.01	13	14.44
991	INSTITUTIONS	38	0.01	21	23.33
992	LIGHT	38	0.01	30	33.33
993	MANNER	38	0.01	24	26.67
994	MISTAKES	38	0.01	16	17.78
995	PREPARE	38	0.01	27	30.00
996	RAISE	38	0.01	24	26.67
997	RECEPTIVE	38	0.01	14	15.56
998	RECOMMENDED	38	0.01	29	32.22
999	REPRESENT	38	0.01	25	27.78
1000	RESOURCE	38	0.01	21	23.33

### Appendix 8: The first 1000 words on BAWE Wordlist

N	Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
1	LANGUAGE	554	0.18	50	54.35
2	WORLD	406	0.13	58	63.04
3	ORDER	399	0.13	71	77.17
4	NEW	396	0.13	62	67.39
5	USE	381	0.13	72	78.26
6	DIFFERENT	364	0.12	77	83.70
7	LEARNING	361	0.12	26	28.26
8	WAY	357	0.12	68	73.91
9	TIME	356	0.12	77	83.70
10	SOCIETY	350	0.12	37	40.22
11	WORK	346	0.11	71	77.17
12	SOCIAL	344	0.11	53	57.61
13	ENGLISH	339	0.11	44	47.83
14	STATE	337	0.11	36	39.13
15	STUDENTS	337	0.11	24	26.09
16	FORM	319	0.11	64	69.57
17	HISTORY	315	0.10	36	39.13
18	THEORY	313	0.10	50	54.35
19	POLITICAL	309	0.10	33	35.87
20	RESEARCH	306	0.10	35	38.04
21	EXAMPLE	297	0.10	75	81.52
22	FIRST	297	0.10	74	80.43
23	WOMEN	291	0.10	24	26.09
24	SYSTEM	290	0.10	53	57.61
25	APPROACH	278	0.09	49	53.26
26	LIFE	273	0.09	49	53.26
27	NATURE	272	0.09	62	67.39
28	VALUE	262	0.09	32	34.78
29	ANALYSIS	258	0.09	62	67.39
30	INTERNATIONAL	258	0.09	15	16.30
31	LIKE	256	0.08	69	75.00
32	LEVEL	255	0.08	55	59.78
33	LABOUR	253	0.08	14	15.22
34	HUMAN	241	0.08	34	36.96
35	MEANING	237	0.08	54	58.70
36	TEXT	233	0.08	27	29.35
37	PROCESS	230	0.08	45	48.91
38	FORMULA	225	0.07	15	16.30
39	IMPORTANT	224	0.07	66	71.74
40	CLASS	223	0.07	36	39.13
41	STATES	223	0.07	47	51.09
42	STRUCTURE	220	0.07	51	55.43
43	FACT	213	0.07	66	71.74
44	ROLE	213	0.07	60	65.22
45	PEOPLE	211	0.07	54	58.70
46	LEARNERS	210	0.07	19	20.65
47	STUDY	206	0.07	52	56.52
48	ITSELF	202	0.07	50	54.35
49	PRESENT	200	0.07	55	59.78
50	PART	199	0.07	61	66.30
51	MAKE	197	0.07	65	70.65

52	KNOWLEDGE	196	0.06	49	53.26
53	MUST	195	0.06	53	57.61
54	RATHER	195	0.06	68	73.91
55	IBID	193	0.06	12	13.04
56	EACH	191	0.06	64	69.57
57	EU	191	0.06	2	2.17
58	MADE	191	0.06	63	68.48
59	MUCH	191	0.06	63	68.48
60	EXPERIENCE	190	0.06	52	56.52
61	POLICY	189	0.06	12	13.04
62	MEANS	187	0.06	63	68.48
63	WORDS	186	0.06	48	52.17
64	ACCORDING	183	0.06	55	59.78
65	CONTEXT	183	0.06	55	59.78
66	TEACHING	183	0.06	25	27.17
67	SENSE	182	0.06	49	53.26
68	STILL	182	0.06	63	68.48
69	US	182	0.06	49	53.26
70	NEED	181	0.06	57	61.96
71	TERMS	181	0.06	51	55.43
72	DRAMA	179	0.06	6	6.52
73	WITHOUT	179	0.06	59	64.13
74	BASED	177	0.06	60	65.22
75	POINT	177	0.06	66	71.74
76	GOVERNANCE	176	0.06	5	5.43
77	NOW	174	0.06	56	60.87
78	SECOND	173	0.06	53	57.61
79	FOCUS	172	0.06	50	54.35
80	ECONOMIC	171	0.06	23	25.00
81	LONDON	170	0.06	25	27.17
82	PLACE	169	0.06	63	68.48
83	OVER	167	0.06	61	66.30
84	PAST	167	0.06	34	36.96
85	WAR	167	0.06	22	23.91
86	COMMON	166	0.05	50	54.35
87	WHILE	166	0.05	63	68.48
88	ALTHOUGH	165	0.05	56	60.87
89	FOLLOWING	165	0.05	65	70.65
90	OFTEN	165	0.05	55	59.78
91	NORTH	163	0.05	7	7.61
92	THREE	160	0.05	65	70.65
93	CONSCIOUSNESS	159	0.05	17	18.48
94	SEEN	158	0.05	58	63.04
95	JUST	156	0.05	61	66.30
96	GIVEN	155	0.05	56	60.87
97	FORMS	154	0.05	54	58.70
98	INPUT	154	0.05	17	18.48
99	ESSAY	153	0.05	47	51.09
100	HERE	153	0.05	53	57.61
101	INDIVIDUAL	153	0.05	46	50.00
102	DID	151	0.05	45	48.91
103	HIM	150	0.05	38	41.30
104	LINE	150	0.05	31	33.70
105	SEE	150	0.05	53	57.61
106	POWER	149	0.05	36	39.13
107	QUESTION	149	0.05	61	66.30

108	STRATEGY	149	0.05	21	22.83
109	CASE	148	0.05	54	58.70
110	TAKE	148	0.05	57	61.96
111	SELF	147	0.05	35	38.04
112	PRESS	146	0.05	21	22.83
113	TEXTS	146	0.05	25	27.17
114	ABLE	144	0.05	48	52.17
115	CERTAIN	143	0.05	54	58.70
116	STUDIES	143	0.05	43	46.74
117	NATURAL	142	0.05	37	40.22
118	G	141	0.05	36	39.13
119	PRODUCTION	141	0.05	29	31.52
120	BEFORE	140	0.05	59	64.13
121	CITY	140	0.05	15	16.30
122	HISTORICAL	140	0.05	28	30.43
123	EUROPEAN	139	0.05	12	13.04
124	FOUND	138	0.05	51	55.43
125	SINCE	138	0.05	52	56.52
126	ORGANISATION	137	0.05	13	14.13
127	PROBLEM	137	0.05	46	50.00
128	PROVIDE	137	0.05	58	63.04
129	SYLLABLE	136	0.05	5	5.43
130	CONCEPT	135	0.04	48	52.17
131	PARTICULAR	135	0.04	54	58.70
132	MODEL	133	0.04	33	35.87
133	S	133	0.04	33	35.87
134	DEVELOPMENT	132	0.04	43	46.74
135	MIGHT	131	0.04	43	46.74
136	MODERN	131	0.04	32	34.78
137	WRITING	131	0.04	28	30.43
138	VIEW	130	0.04	55	59.78
139	ABOVE	129	0.04	57	61.96
140	POSSIBLE	129	0.04	56	60.87
141	TEACHERS	128	0.04	22	23.91
142	ILLNESS	127	0.04	3	3.26
143	MAN	127	0.04	26	28.26
144	UNDERSTANDING	127	0.04	48	52.17
145	ME	126	0.04	34	36.96
146	SITUATION	126	0.04	47	51.09
147	DICKENS	125	0.04	4	4.35
148	POSITION	125	0.04	44	47.83
149	RESULT	125	0.04	53	57.61
150	SET	125	0.04	51	55.43
151	UNIVERSITY	125	0.04	32	34.78
152	ACCOUNT	124	0.04	47	51.09
153	WORD	124	0.04	40	43.48
154	FURTHER	123	0.04	59	64.13
155	INDEED	123	0.04	32	34.78
156	LONG	123	0.04	50	54.35
157	NUMBER	123	0.04	47	51.09
158	NON	122	0.04	45	48.91
159	TEACHER	122	0.04	22	23.91
160	CANNOT	121	0.04	54	58.70
161	COURSE	121	0.04	31	33.70
162	BECOME	120	0.04	45	48.91
163	END	120	0.04	49	53.26

164	MULTI	120	0.04	14	15.22
165	RELATIONSHIP	120	0.04	47	51.09
166	WHETHER	120	0.04	59	64.13
167	CLEAR	119	0.04	56	60.87
168	CULTURAL	119	0.04	35	38.04
169	EDUCATION	119	0.04	19	20.65
170	TURN	119	0.04	44	47.83
171	BULL	118	0.04	2	2.17
172	IDEA	118	0.04	39	42.39
173	INFORMATION	118	0.04	43	46.74
174	tone	118	0.04	18	19.57
175	GREAT	116	0.04	40	43.48
176	TRADITIONAL	116	0.04	33	35.87
177	VARIOUS	116	0.04	49	53.26
178	DURING	115	0.04	45	48.91
179	HELP	115	0.04	47	51.09
180	NATIONAL	114	0.04	17	18.48
181	YEARS	114	0.04	44	47.83
182	ACTION	113	0.04	34	36.96
183	FAR	113	0.04	46	50.00
184	THOUGH	113	0.04	39	42.39
185	CENTURY	112	0.04	27	29.35
186	GENERAL	112	0.04	46	50.00
187	LINGUISTIC	112	0.04	32	34.78
188	INTERPRETATION	111	0.04	39	42.39
189	SECTION	111	0.04	34	36.96
190	THEORIES	111	0.04	24	26.09
191	FOREIGN	110	0.04	21	22.83
192	IMPORTANCE	110	0.04	51	55.43
193	STORY	110	0.04	21	22.83
194	DIFFICULT	109	0.04	51	55.43
195	FACTORS	109	0.04	31	33.70
196	FURTHERMORE	109	0.04	43	46.74
197	GRAMMAR	109	0.04	21	22.83
198	IDENTITY	109	0.04	27	29.35
199	MAKING	109	0.04	44	47.83
200	SCHOOL	109	0.04	22	23.91
201	WHY	109	0.04	49	53.26
202	CHRONIC	108	0.04	5	5.43
203	PERIOD	108	0.04	31	33.70
204	POST	108	0.04	29	31.52
205	UPON	108	0.04	43	46.74
206	GOOD	107	0.04	43	46.74
207	KOREA	107	0.04	3	3.26
208	LITTLE	107	0.04	42	45.65
209	READING	107	0.04	29	31.52
210	YOU	107	0.04	32	34.78
211	FUTURE	106	0.04	30	32.61
212	CULTURE	105	0.03	35	38.04
213	EVERY	105	0.03	49	53.26
214	NECESSARY	105	0.03	50	54.35
215	RIGHT	105	0.03	35	38.04
216	SPECIFIC	105	0.03	45	48.91
217	BOOK	104	0.03	29	31.52
218	GREEK	104	0.03	18	19.57
219	HIGH	104	0.03	40	43.48

220	MEDICAL	104	0.03	12	13.04
221	NEGATIVE	104	0.03	32	34.78
222	REAL	104	0.03	40	43.48
223	WHOLE	104	0.03	52	56.52
224	PERSONAL	103	0.03	40	43.48
225	TOWARDS	103	0.03	44	47.83
226	DESPITE	102	0.03	45	48.91
227	SPEECH	102	0.03	33	35.87
228	THEMSELVES	102	0.03	46	50.00
229	VOL	102	0.03	9	9.78
230	CRITICAL	101	0.03	38	41.30
231	GROUP	101	0.03	43	46.74
232	PRACTICE	101	0.03	30	32.61
233	PRONUNCIATION	101	0.03	11	11.96
234	RELATION	101	0.03	32	34.78
235	SIMILAR	101	0.03	52	56.52
236	SOMETHING	101	0.03	43	46.74
237	ISSUES	100	0.03	33	35.87
238	WEBER	100	0.03	3	3.26
239	COMMUNITY	99	0.03	24	26.09
240	SCIENCE	99	0.03	18	19.57
241	SPEAKER	99	0.03	22	23.91
242	FIND	98	0.03	48	52.17
243	MAIN	98	0.03	51	55.43
244	REALITY	98	0.03	41	44.57
245	BEYOND	97	0.03	39	42.39
246	CHANGE	97	0.03	37	40.22
247	INTERACTION	97	0.03	32	34.78
248	POINTS	97	0.03	51	55.43
249	POLITICS	97	0.03	22	23.91
250	ACADEMIC	96	0.03	15	16.30
251	CITED	96	0.03	26	28.26
252	DATA	96	0.03	27	29.35
253	FEMALE	96	0.03	16	17.39
254	NOVEL	96	0.03	12	13.04
255	ARGUES	95	0.03	35	38.04
256	DISCOURSE	95	0.03	21	22.83
257	MIRANDA	95	0.03	2	2.17
258	NOTION	95	0.03	35	38.04
259	RULES	95	0.03	21	22.83
260	VALUES	95	0.03	29	31.52
261	WORKS	95	0.03	31	33.70
262	AMONG	94	0.03	42	45.65
263	FINAL	94	0.03	41	44.57
264	FINALLY	94	0.03	44	47.83
265	RELATIONS	94	0.03	26	28.26
266	SAY	94	0.03	43	46.74
267	STRATEGIES	94	0.03	27	29.35
268	CONDITION	93	0.03	19	20.65
269	EXPERIENCES	93	0.03	28	30.43
270	HAND	93	0.03	47	51.09
271	IDEAS	93	0.03	33	35.87
272	UNDERSTAND	93	0.03	35	38.04
273	YET	93	0.03	49	53.26
274	EAST	92	0.03	9	9.78
275	INSTEAD	92	0.03	42	45.65

276	METHOD	92	0.03	21	22.83
277	PUBLIC	92	0.03	26	28.26
278	SIMPLY	92	0.03	44	47.83
279	STRUCTURES	92	0.03	32	34.78
280	ACQUISITION	91	0.03	14	15.22
281	ASPECTS	91	0.03	48	52.17
282	FRAMEWORK	91	0.03	31	33.70
283	MEN	91	0.03	27	29.35
284	POTENTIAL	91	0.03	41	44.57
285	PROVIDES	91	0.03	41	44.57
286	B	90	0.03	31	33.70
287	CHARACTERS	90	0.03	18	19.57
288	CHILDREN	90	0.03	26	28.26
289	EGYPTIAN	90	0.03	3	3.26
290	FEATURES	90	0.03	29	31.52
291	LESS	90	0.03	52	56.52
292	ALWAYS	89	0.03	48	52.17
293	CLEARLY	89	0.03	46	50.00
294	ELEMENTS	89	0.03	39	42.39
295	PROBLEMS	89	0.03	43	46.74
296	QUESTIONS	89	0.03	35	38.04
297	SPEAKERS	89	0.03	22	23.91
298	TAKEN	89	0.03	42	45.65
299	THOUGHT	89	0.03	39	42.39
300	USING	89	0.03	40	43.48
301	WAYS	89	0.03	39	42.39
302	WHILST	89	0.03	29	31.52
303	ACTIVITIES	88	0.03	26	28.26
304	C	88	0.03	22	23.91
305	GENDER	88	0.03	10	10.87
306	GOVERNMENT	88	0.03	15	16.30
307	R	88	0.03	16	17.39
308	UNDER	88	0.03	42	45.65
309	AGAINST	87	0.03	45	48.91
310	JAPANESE	87	0.03	8	8.70
311	NEEDS	87	0.03	39	42.39
312	SCOPE	87	0.03	24	26.09
313	SEEMS	87	0.03	37	40.22
314	SUBJECT	87	0.03	38	41.30
315	TOO	87	0.03	44	47.83
316	BETTER	86	0.03	44	47.83
317	BODY	86	0.03	19	20.65
318	DUE	86	0.03	43	46.74
319	GOTHIC	86	0.03	3	3.26
320	ISSUE	86	0.03	38	41.30
321	MARKET	86	0.03	19	20.65
322	REASON	86	0.03	31	33.70
323	AGE	85	0.03	25	27.17
324	CHINESE	85	0.03	14	15.22
325	COME	85	0.03	40	43.48
326	GRAMMATICAL	85	0.03	28	30.43
327	HONG	85	0.03	4	4.35
328	MOREOVER	85	0.03	35	38.04
329	QUALITY	85	0.03	26	28.26
330	RELATED	85	0.03	37	40.22
331	SAID	85	0.03	39	42.39

332	ATTENTION	84	0.03	43	46.74
333	KONG	84	0.03	4	4.35
334	BUSINESS	83	0.03	15	16.30
335	DEVELOP	83	0.03	37	40.22
336	INITIAL	83	0.03	29	31.52
337	LITERATURE	83	0.03	35	38.04
338	MEANINGS	82	0.03	25	27.17
339	NATIVE	82	0.03	21	22.83
340	SCHOOLS	82	0.03	10	10.87
341	STAGE	82	0.03	33	35.87
342	AMERICAN	81	0.03	17	18.48
343	BECOMES	81	0.03	43	46.74
344	ECONOMY	81	0.03	10	10.87
345	GIVE	81	0.03	44	47.83
346	INSTRUCTION	81	0.03	15	16.30
347	PERHAPS	81	0.03	33	35.87
348	SIMPLE	81	0.03	31	33.70
349	STYLE	81	0.03	31	33.70
350	TERM	81	0.03	39	42.39
351	WRITTEN	81	0.03	34	36.96
352	ABILITY	80	0.03	35	38.04
353	ALREADY	80	0.03	43	46.74
354	DISTINCTION	80	0.03	33	35.87
355	EITHER	80	0.03	48	52.17
356	MAKES	80	0.03	42	45.65
357	TAKES	80	0.03	43	46.74
358	BACK	79	0.03	38	41.30
359	BEST	79	0.03	35	38.04
360	CALLED	79	0.03	42	45.65
361	LACK	79	0.03	39	42.39
362	PERFORMANCE	79	0.03	25	27.17
363	AIR	78	0.03	7	7.61
364	AMBIGUITY	78	0.03	11	11.96
365	APPROACHES	78	0.03	31	33.70
366	CONTENT	78	0.03	29	31.52
367	D	78	0.03	20	21.74
368	DIFFERENCE	78	0.03	40	43.48
369	DISCUSSION	78	0.03	43	46.74
370	SEMANTIC	78	0.03	15	16.30
371	ACTIVITY	77	0.03	32	34.78
372	EVENTS	77	0.03	28	30.43
373	KIND	77	0.03	37	40.22
374	KNOW	77	0.03	34	36.96
375	LEARNER	77	0.03	12	13.04
376	METHODS	77	0.03	27	29.35
377	OBJECT	77	0.03	16	17.39
378	PERSON	77	0.03	40	43.48
379	ASIA	76	0.03	6	6.52
380	DOWN	76	0.03	44	47.83
381	GREATER	76	0.03	35	38.04
382	PRE	76	0.03	33	35.87
383	DEVELOPED	75	0.02	38	41.30
384	EXTENT	75	0.02	44	47.83
385	FUNCTION	75	0.02	30	32.61
386	HAVING	75	0.02	39	42.39
387	OSIRIS	75	0.02	1	1.09



388	PROVIDED	75	0.02	44	47.83
389	CHARACTER	74	0.02	25	27.17
390	EVIDENCE	74	0.02	33	35.87
391	EXPLAIN	74	0.02	33	35.87
392	LAW	74	0.02	15	16.30
393	PARTICULARLY	74	0.02	35	38.04
394	PERSPECTIVE	74	0.02	34	36.96
395	PROJECT	74	0.02	26	28.26
396	SINGLE	74	0.02	34	36.96
397	ADDITION	73	0.02	41	44.57
398	INDIVIDUALS	73	0.02	26	28.26
399	OLIVER	73	0.02	7	7.61
400	ONCE	73	0.02	36	39.13
401	OTHERS	73	0.02	39	42.39
402	SENTENCE	73	0.02	20	21.74
403	SUPPORT	73	0.02	39	42.39
404	TYPE	73	0.02	34	36.96
405	AROUND	72	0.02	40	43.48
406	CLAIM	72	0.02	40	43.48
407	ESSENTIAL	72	0.02	42	45.65
408	EXAMPLES	72	0.02	31	33.70
409	TOGETHER	72	0.02	40	43.48
410	BASIC	71	0.02	37	40.22
411	BEGINNING	71	0.02	36	39.13
412	CONCLUSION	71	0.02	43	46.74
413	ET	71	0.02	27	29.35
414	EXISTENCE	71	0.02	25	27.17
415	MARX	71	0.02	4	4.35
416	POSITIVE	71	0.02	34	36.96
417	QUITE	71	0.02	36	39.13
418	APPEARS	70	0.02	34	36.96
419	BROWN	70	0.02	15	16.30
420	CRISIS	70	0.02	14	15.22
421	ETHICAL	70	0.02	7	7.61
422	INFLUENCE	70	0.02	37	40.22
423	JUSTICE	70	0.02	9	9.78
424	LAST	70	0.02	39	42.39
425	REGION	70	0.02	8	8.70
426	AL	69	0.02	27	29.35
427	BEHAVIOUR	69	0.02	29	31.52
428	CHILD	69	0.02	20	21.74
429	CRUCIAL	69	0.02	37	40.22
430	LEGITIMACY	69	0.02	7	7.61
431	MOTIVATION	69	0.02	16	17.39
432	MYTH	69	0.02	14	15.22
433	WORKING	69	0.02	31	33.70
434	AWAY	68	0.02	26	28.26
435	COMMITMENT	68	0.02	16	17.39
436	CUSTOMERS	68	0.02	6	6.52
437	FEEL	68	0.02	27	29.35
438	MAJOR	68	0.02	36	39.13
439	NICHOLAS	68	0.02	6	6.52
440	CONCERNED	67	0.02	36	39.13
441	DAVID	67	0.02	19	20.65
442	EARLY	67	0.02	35	38.04
443	ED	67	0.02	20	21.74

444	NEVER	67	0.02	39	42.39
445	PLAY	67	0.02	31	33.70
446	RANGE	67	0.02	30	32.61
447	RISE	67	0.02	22	23.91
448	SIGNIFICANT	67	0.02	33	35.87
449	TAKING	67	0.02	36	39.13
450	TENSE	67	0.02	9	9.78
451	TRUE	67	0.02	38	41.30
452	AGAIN	66	0.02	35	38.04
453	BASIS	66	0.02	34	36.96
454	DEATH	66	0.02	17	18.48
455	ESPECIALLY	66	0.02	38	41.30
456	GLOBAL	66	0.02	14	15.22
457	HENCE	66	0.02	27	29.35
458	INSTANCE	66	0.02	37	40.22
459	LATTER	66	0.02	36	39.13
460	OUTSIDE	66	0.02	30	32.61
461	PHYSICAL	66	0.02	31	33.70
462	PUT	66	0.02	36	39.13
463	SKILLS	66	0.02	21	22.83
464	TODAY	66	0.02	22	23.91
465	VARIETY	66	0.02	37	40.22
466	WHEREAS	66	0.02	31	33.70
467	ACHIEVE	65	0.02	35	38.04
468	CIVIL	65	0.02	6	6.52
469	COMPLEX	65	0.02	38	41.30
470	FIGURE	65	0.02	22	23.91
471	HEAD	65	0.02	14	15.22
472	LIMITED	65	0.02	29	31.52
473	LOOK	65	0.02	39	42.39
474	REFERS	65	0.02	34	36.96
475	SEVERAL	65	0.02	32	34.78
476	SOURCE	65	0.02	27	29.35
477	WILLIAMS	65	0.02	9	9.78
478	ASIAN	64	0.02	6	6.52
479	ATTEMPT	64	0.02	32	34.78
480	AUTHOR	64	0.02	11	11.96
481	AUTHORITY	64	0.02	17	18.48
482	CONVERSATION	64	0.02	16	17.39
483	DEMOCRATIC	64	0.02	6	6.52
484	EXCHANGE	64	0.02	13	14.13
485	KEY	64	0.02	34	36.96
486	LABOR	64	0.02	3	3.26
487	LONGER	64	0.02	37	40.22
488	LOW	64	0.02	20	21.74
489	MENTIONED	64	0.02	37	40.22
490	NOVELS	64	0.02	6	6.52
491	NUCLEAR	64	0.02	4	4.35
492	OPEN	64	0.02	28	30.43
493	PERSIAN	64	0.02	4	4.35
494	POSSIBILITY	64	0.02	27	29.35
495	TEST	64	0.02	9	9.78
496	WATERLAND	64	0.02	1	1.09
497	ABSTRACT	63	0.02	14	15.22
498	ARGUED	63	0.02	30	32.61
499	BELIEVE	63	0.02	35	38.04

500	CENTRAL	63	0.02	32	34.78
501	DISCUSSED	63	0.02	35	38.04
502	FACE	63	0.02	31	33.70
503	GO	63	0.02	34	36.96
504	ITEMS	63	0.02	19	20.65
505	LIVES	63	0.02	18	19.57
506	MIND	63	0.02	32	34.78
507	PAPER	63	0.02	23	25.00
508	PRINCIPLES	63	0.02	28	30.43
509	QUALITATIVE	63	0.02	9	9.78
510	ROACH	63	0.02	7	7.61
511	TOPIC	63	0.02	21	22.83
512	TYPES	63	0.02	28	30.43
513	ALLOW	62	0.02	34	36.96
514	BECAME	62	0.02	25	27.17
515	CLAIMS	62	0.02	32	34.78
516	CONCERNING	62	0.02	27	29.35
517	CRITICISM	62	0.02	21	22.83
518	ELEMENT	62	0.02	32	34.78
519	HIMSELF	62	0.02	23	25.00
520	Ï€	62	0.02	1	1.09
521	INTEGRATION	62	0.02	12	13.04
522	L	62	0.02	11	11.96
523	LEFT	62	0.02	31	33.70
524	LOOKING	62	0.02	31	33.70
525	MORAL	62	0.02	17	18.48
526	OUTPUT	62	0.02	9	9.78
527	PRESENTED	62	0.02	39	42.39
528	TRADITION	62	0.02	17	18.48
529	UNIT	62	0.02	13	14.13
530	YOUNG	62	0.02	18	19.57
531	ACCENT	61	0.02	6	6.52
532	ACTUALLY	61	0.02	39	42.39
533	CONCEPTS	61	0.02	28	30.43
534	CONDITIONS	61	0.02	24	26.09
535	DISRUPTION	61	0.02	3	3.26
536	LEARN	61	0.02	20	21.74
537	LIGHT	61	0.02	39	42.39
538	LITERACY	61	0.02	3	3.26
539	MALE	61	0.02	13	14.13
540	NATION	61	0.02	10	10.87
541	REGIONAL	61	0.02	7	7.61
542	RESEARCHER	61	0.02	10	10.87
543	RESPONSE	61	0.02	25	27.17
544	SECURITY	61	0.02	13	14.13
545	SHOW	61	0.02	38	41.30
546	SYNTACTIC	61	0.02	11	11.96
547	CAMBRIDGE	60	0.02	17	18.48
548	CLASSROOM	60	0.02	17	18.48
549	CONSIDERED	60	0.02	40	43.48
550	DEGREE	60	0.02	31	33.70
551	F	60	0.02	15	16.30
552	FEW	60	0.02	34	36.96
553	LATER	60	0.02	38	41.30
554	LED	60	0.02	30	32.61
555	MAGICAL	60	0.02	5	5.43

556	PAGE	60	0.02	14	15.22
557	PRODUCED	60	0.02	26	28.26
558	PURPOSE	60	0.02	34	36.96
559	RESEARCHERS	60	0.02	10	10.87
560	ARGUMENT	59	0.02	30	32.61
561	CHARACTERISTICS	59	0.02	36	39.13
562	DEBATE	59	0.02	27	29.35
563	EMPLOYEES	59	0.02	4	4.35
564	INTEREST	59	0.02	28	30.43
565	LIMERICK	59	0.02	1	1.09
566	PHILOSOPHY	59	0.02	15	16.30
567	REMAINS	59	0.02	29	31.52
568	RULE	59	0.02	18	19.57
569	SHORT	59	0.02	28	30.43
570	TARGET	59	0.02	22	23.91
571	TASK	59	0.02	30	32.61
572	UNDERSTOOD	59	0.02	31	33.70
573	UNIVERSAL	59	0.02	21	22.83
574	USES	59	0.02	33	35.87
575	DIRECT	58	0.02	34	36.96
576	GENRE	58	0.02	9	9.78
577	HOME	58	0.02	24	26.09
578	I	58	0.02	3	3.26
579	LEAST	58	0.02	38	41.30
580	OLD	58	0.02	25	27.17
581	OXFORD	58	0.02	16	17.39
582	SCENE	58	0.02	10	10.87
583	VOICED	58	0.02	3	3.26
584	APPENDIX	57	0.02	15	16.30
585	AREA	57	0.02	32	34.78
586	AREAS	57	0.02	24	26.09
587	AUDIENCE	57	0.02	14	15.22
588	CASES	57	0.02	28	30.43
589	CONTRAST	57	0.02	35	38.04
590	ENVIRONMENT	57	0.02	29	31.52
591	EUROPE	57	0.02	12	13.04
592	GENERALLY	57	0.02	35	38.04
593	ISLAND	57	0.02	3	3.26
594	JAPAN	57	0.02	4	4.35
595	LEAD	57	0.02	39	42.39
596	LEXICAL	57	0.02	16	17.39
597	LIKELY	57	0.02	35	38.04
598	PARTICIPANTS	57	0.02	18	19.57
599	PRIVATE	57	0.02	24	26.09
600	PRODUCT	57	0.02	27	29.35
601	SPEAKING	57	0.02	27	29.35
602	STUDENT	57	0.02	14	15.22
603	WOMAN	57	0.02	18	19.57
604	WOMEN'S	57	0.02	11	11.96
605	ARENDT	56	0.02	1	1.09
606	CREATE	56	0.02	33	35.87
607	CURRENT	56	0.02	30	32.61
608	DESIRE	56	0.02	24	26.09
609	EFFECT	56	0.02	34	36.96
610	FILM	56	0.02	8	8.70
611	FORMAL	56	0.02	25	27.17

612	HUSSERL	56	0.02	1	1.09
613	IMAGE	56	0.02	23	25.00
614	NEXT	56	0.02	34	36.96
615	PREVIOUS	56	0.02	33	35.87
616	THEME	56	0.02	22	23.91
617	THINGS	56	0.02	23	25.00
618	UNITED	56	0.02	11	11.96
619	VOICE	56	0.02	20	21.74
620	ARGUE	55	0.02	27	29.35
621	CHOICE	55	0.02	24	26.09
622	CONSEQUENTLY	55	0.02	25	27.17
623	DAY	55	0.02	28	30.43
624	DESCRIBED	55	0.02	36	39.13
625	EFFECTIVE	55	0.02	24	26.09
626	EMPHASIS	55	0.02	37	40.22
627	LITERARY	55	0.02	15	16.30
628	REQUIRED	55	0.02	29	31.52
629	SENTENCES	55	0.02	17	18.48
630	SUGGESTS	55	0.02	32	34.78
631	THEATRE	55	0.02	3	3.26
632	THEORETICAL	55	0.02	22	23.91
633	VERB	55	0.02	15	16.30
634	ZANMEN	55	0.02	1	1.09
635	BOOKS	54	0.02	23	25.00
636	CHINA	54	0.02	10	10.87
637	CONTEXTS	54	0.02	20	21.74
638	COUNTRY	54	0.02	19	20.65
639	DICKENS'S	54	0.02	2	2.17
640	HEGEL	54	0.02	2	2.17
641	IKEA	54	0.02	1	1.09
642	MIDDLE	54	0.02	27	29.35
643	ONSET	54	0.02	8	8.70
644	PRODUCE	54	0.02	31	33.70
645	THING	54	0.02	24	26.09
646	TRUTH	54	0.02	18	19.57
647	USEFUL	54	0.02	30	32.61
648	ACT	53	0.02	29	31.52
649	ASPECT	53	0.02	28	30.43
650	CONTROL	53	0.02	26	28.26
651	FACTOR	53	0.02	18	19.57
652	GLOBALISATION	53	0.02	5	5.43
653	MODALITY	53	0.02	2	2.17
654	PRODUCTS	53	0.02	13	14.13
655	READER	53	0.02	20	21.74
656	REMAIN	53	0.02	27	29.35
657	CONCERNS	52	0.02	27	29.35
658	ETC	52	0.02	21	22.83
659	FAMILY	52	0.02	18	19.57
660	INVOLVED	52	0.02	34	36.96
661	LANGUAGES	52	0.02	20	21.74
662	NARRATIVE	52	0.02	17	18.48
663	NOTHING	52	0.02	28	30.43
664	OCCUR	52	0.02	24	26.09
665	UNION	52	0.02	5	5.43
666	VERSION	52	0.02	17	18.48
667	WHOSE	52	0.02	31	33.70

668	AWARE	51	0.02	30	32.61
669	BUREAUCRACY	51	0.02	3	3.26
670	CATEGORIES	51	0.02	26	28.26
671	DRAMATIC	51	0.02	11	11.96
672	FOLLOWS	51	0.02	33	35.87
673	GET	51	0.02	28	30.43
674	INSTITUTIONS	51	0.02	13	14.13
675	J	51	0.02	17	18.48
676	KOREAN	51	0.02	5	5.43
677	LEVELS	51	0.02	27	29.35
678	MARX'S	51	0.02	3	3.26
679	NOR	51	0.02	37	40.22
680	RELEVANT	51	0.02	36	39.13
681	SEEM	51	0.02	29	31.52
682	SETTING	51	0.02	27	29.35
683	STRONG	51	0.02	35	38.04
684	AIM	50	0.02	29	31.52
685	APPEAR	50	0.02	27	29.35
686	CONTEMPORARY	50	0.02	20	21.74
687	ENOUGH	50	0.02	31	33.70
688	FALL	50	0.02	18	19.57
689	FEATURE	50	0.02	21	22.83
690	GOALS	50	0.02	18	19.57
691	IMPLICATIONS	50	0.02	28	30.43
692	LINES	50	0.02	20	21.74
693	NEVERTHELESS	50	0.02	35	38.04
694	RECENT	50	0.02	28	30.43
695	REFERENCE	50	0.02	28	30.43
696	SHOWN	50	0.02	29	31.52
697	UNTIL	50	0.02	31	33.70
698	USUALLY	50	0.02	31	33.70
699	VIEWS	50	0.02	24	26.09
700	VOCABULARY	50	0.02	16	17.39
701	ALMOST	49	0.02	25	27.17
702	ALTERNATIVE	49	0.02	27	29.35
703	BELIEF	49	0.02	27	29.35
704	CLASSES	49	0.02	20	21.74
705	CUSTOMER	49	0.02	7	7.61
706	EXISTING	49	0.02	26	28.26
707	FREE	49	0.02	31	33.70
708	HIGHLY	49	0.02	31	33.70
709	MOVE	49	0.02	26	28.26
710	OBJECTIVE	49	0.02	20	21.74
711	QUANTITATIVE	49	0.02	6	6.52
712	REGIONALISM	49	0.02	2	2.17
713	RESULTS	49	0.02	29	31.52
714	RIGHTS	49	0.02	10	10.87
715	SHARED	49	0.02	26	28.26
716	SHOSTAK	49	0.02	1	1.09
717	SPECTATOR	49	0.02	6	6.52
718	SUCCESSFUL	49	0.02	21	22.83
719	VALIDITY	49	0.02	20	21.74
720	AVAILABLE	48	0.02	34	36.96
721	BECKER	48	0.02	2	2.17
722	BEHIND	48	0.02	28	30.43
723	BIOGRAPHICAL	48	0.02	2	2.17

724	CAROLINGIAN	48	0.02	1	1.09
725	CERTAINLY	48	0.02	26	28.26
726	CONSTRUCTION	48	0.02	26	28.26
727	CONTRARY	48	0.02	30	32.61
728	DISTINCT	48	0.02	26	28.26
729	ENGAGEMENT	48	0.02	8	8.70
730	FELT	48	0.02	18	19.57
731	GIVES	48	0.02	35	38.04
732	GROUPS	48	0.02	27	29.35
733	INCLUDING	48	0.02	32	34.78
734	K	48	0.02	10	10.87
735	KNOWN	48	0.02	30	32.61
736	MANAGEMENT	48	0.02	8	8.70
737	MATERIAL	48	0.02	27	29.35
738	MEMBERS	48	0.02	19	20.65
739	NIETZSCHE	48	0.02	2	2.17
740	PLUTARCH	48	0.02	1	1.09
741	SOMETIMES	48	0.02	29	31.52
742	SOUND	48	0.02	20	21.74
743	SOUTH	48	0.02	10	10.87
744	THIRD	48	0.02	26	28.26
745	TIMES	48	0.02	30	32.61
746	WIDE	48	0.02	27	29.35
747	WRITER	48	0.02	14	15.22
748	APPROPRIATE	47	0.02	27	29.35
749	ASSOCIATED	47	0.02	30	32.61
750	CENTRE	47	0.02	27	29.35
751	COMMODITY	47	0.02	4	4.35
752	COMMUNICATION	47	0.02	18	19.57
753	CRITICS	47	0.02	13	14.13
754	DE	47	0.02	17	18.48
755	DISABILITY	47	0.02	3	3.26
756	EMOTIONAL	47	0.02	21	22.83
757	EXPECTED	47	0.02	28	30.43
758	FORCE	47	0.02	18	19.57
759	FULLY	47	0.02	21	22.83
760	HEROINE	47	0.02	5	5.43
761	HYPOTHESIS	47	0.02	11	11.96
762	IDENTIFY	47	0.02	28	30.43
763	MOVEMENT	47	0.02	16	17.39
764	NETWORK	47	0.02	13	14.13
765	OBJECTS	47	0.02	16	17.39
766	OFFERS	47	0.02	28	30.43
767	POPULAR	47	0.02	21	22.83
768	RE	47	0.02	17	18.48
769	REGARDED	47	0.02	23	25.00
770	RESPECT	47	0.02	24	26.09
771	SCHOLARS	47	0.02	17	18.48
772	SERVICE	47	0.02	9	9.78
773	SHOWS	47	0.02	27	29.35
774	VERBS	47	0.02	13	14.13
775	APPLIED	46	0.02	29	31.52
776	ARTICLE	46	0.02	15	16.30
777	BACKGROUND	46	0.02	23	25.00
778	CONCERN	46	0.02	26	28.26
779	DIFFERENCES	46	0.02	25	27.17

780	DIRECTLY	46	0.02	32	34.78
781	EXAMINE	46	0.02	27	29.35
782	FULL	46	0.02	30	32.61
783	INCREASE	46	0.02	24	26.09
784	INTERESTING	46	0.02	25	27.17
785	INTRODUCTION	46	0.02	25	27.17
786	MERELY	46	0.02	27	29.35
787	PROVIDING	46	0.02	30	32.61
788	REALLY	46	0.02	31	33.70
789	SIGNIFICANCE	46	0.02	22	23.91
790	TALK	46	0.02	22	23.91
791	TECHNOLOGIES	46	0.02	5	5.43
792	U	46	0.02	7	7.61
793	ACTORS	45	0.01	8	8.70
794	BEGIN	45	0.01	28	30.43
795	CRUSOE	45	0.01	1	1.09
796	FIRSTLY	45	0.01	34	36.96
797	FORMER	45	0.01	31	33.70
798	FORTIS	45	0.01	2	2.17
799	HELD	45	0.01	24	26.09
800	INCREASINGLY	45	0.01	27	29.35
801	INDEPENDENT	45	0.01	29	31.52
802	INTERPRETATIONS	45	0.01	22	23.91
803	INTONATION	45	0.01	12	13.04
804	JOURNAL	45	0.01	12	13.04
805	LARGE	45	0.01	27	29.35
806	LOVE	45	0.01	16	17.39
807	NATIONALISTIC	45	0.01	1	1.09
808	NEITHER	45	0.01	31	33.70
809	PRACTICAL	45	0.01	26	28.26
810	READ	45	0.01	24	26.09
811	REASONS	45	0.01	29	31.52
812	RESOURCES	45	0.01	16	17.39
813	SOUNDS	45	0.01	15	16.30
814	STRUCTURAL	45	0.01	13	14.13
815	WRITERS	45	0.01	18	19.57
816	ANARCHICAL	44	0.01	1	1.09
817	DESCRIBE	44	0.01	24	26.09
818	DESCRIPTION	44	0.01	27	29.35
819	EMPLOYEE	44	0.01	2	2.17
820	EXPLANATION	44	0.01	22	23.91
821	FOUR	44	0.01	28	30.43
822	HOBBS	44	0.01	1	1.09
823	INCLUDE	44	0.01	29	31.52
824	LIVING	44	0.01	23	25.00
825	PHENOMENOLOGY	44	0.01	3	3.26
826	REVIEW	44	0.01	24	26.09
827	TECHNOLOGY	44	0.01	15	16.30
828	TITLE	44	0.01	10	10.87
829	WESTERN	44	0.01	14	15.22
830	YORK	44	0.01	12	13.04
831	ACROSS	43	0.01	28	30.43
832	ATTITUDE	43	0.01	21	22.83
833	CLASSICAL	43	0.01	18	19.57
834	CLOSE	43	0.01	30	32.61
835	COMMUNICATIVE	43	0.01	15	16.30



836	ERRORS	43	0.01	12	13.04
837	EXERCISES	43	0.01	13	14.13
838	FUNCTIONS	43	0.01	22	23.91
839	INDIAN	43	0.01	3	3.26
840	INTRODUCED	43	0.01	25	27.17
841	LEADS	43	0.01	28	30.43
842	LOCAL	43	0.01	20	21.74
843	MONEY	43	0.01	15	16.30
844	PUBLISHER	43	0.01	1	1.09
845	RATIONAL	43	0.01	11	11.96
846	SOURCES	43	0.01	19	20.65
847	STATUS	43	0.01	23	25.00
848	SUGGEST	43	0.01	27	29.35
849	SYSTEMS	43	0.01	23	25.00
850	THINK	43	0.01	29	31.52
851	THROUGHOUT	43	0.01	26	28.26
852	BRITISH	42	0.01	16	17.39
853	CONCRETE	42	0.01	9	9.78
854	DEFINED	42	0.01	31	33.70
855	DESIGN	42	0.01	18	19.57
856	FIELD	42	0.01	24	26.09
857	IMPACT	42	0.01	28	30.43
858	JOHN	42	0.01	18	19.57
859	MARKETING	42	0.01	6	6.52
860	MATTER	42	0.01	28	30.43
861	PERCEPTION	42	0.01	20	21.74
862	PHILOSOPHICAL	42	0.01	12	13.04
863	PICTURE	42	0.01	22	23.91
864	PITCH	42	0.01	5	5.43
865	SELECTION	42	0.01	12	13.04
866	STRATEGIC	42	0.01	8	8.70
867	SUCCESS	42	0.01	26	28.26
868	TH	42	0.01	12	13.04
869	Â	41	0.01	8	8.70
870	ALONG	41	0.01	31	33.70
871	ANCIENT	41	0.01	10	10.87
872	AWARENESS	41	0.01	24	26.09
873	BRING	41	0.01	23	25.00
874	CHALLENGE	41	0.01	23	25.00
875	CONFLICT	41	0.01	16	17.39
876	EASILY	41	0.01	30	32.61
877	EXIST	41	0.01	27	29.35
878	EXPRESSIONS	41	0.01	15	16.30
879	FOLLOW	41	0.01	31	33.70
880	HERODOTUS	41	0.01	3	3.26
881	HOBBS'S	41	0.01	2	2.17
882	IDEAL	41	0.01	22	23.91
883	LET	41	0.01	16	17.39
884	LOCKE	41	0.01	5	5.43
885	MAINTAIN	41	0.01	25	27.17
886	NISA	41	0.01	1	1.09
887	PROCESSES	41	0.01	21	22.83
888	READERS	41	0.01	18	19.57
889	ROLES	41	0.01	18	19.57
890	SIDE	41	0.01	23	25.00
891	TWIST	41	0.01	4	4.35

892	URL	41	0.01	8	8.70
893	VOICELESS	41	0.01	2	2.17
894	AMOUNT	40	0.01	25	27.17
895	CAME	40	0.01	20	21.74
896	ESTABLISHED	40	0.01	26	28.26
897	EVER	40	0.01	25	27.17
898	EXPRESSION	40	0.01	22	23.91
899	FICTION	40	0.01	10	10.87
900	GOD	40	0.01	12	13.04
901	NECESSARILY	40	0.01	23	25.00
902	OFF	40	0.01	27	29.35
903	PATTERN	40	0.01	18	19.57
904	PATTERNS	40	0.01	19	20.65
905	PRIMARY	40	0.01	33	35.87
906	REFER	40	0.01	23	25.00
907	REGULAR	40	0.01	11	11.96
908	ROBINSON	40	0.01	3	3.26
909	ACTIONS	39	0.01	24	26.09
910	ATTEMPTS	39	0.01	22	23.91
911	CAPITALIST	39	0.01	5	5.43
912	CARE	39	0.01	13	14.13
913	CHANGES	39	0.01	28	30.43
914	CO	39	0.01	11	11.96
915	COMPLETE	39	0.01	24	26.09
916	CREATED	39	0.01	28	30.43
917	DEMAND	39	0.01	21	22.83
918	DIFFICULTY	39	0.01	23	25.00
919	FOLLOWED	39	0.01	26	28.26
920	IDENTIFIED	39	0.01	25	27.17
921	IMPERIALISM	39	0.01	6	6.52
922	LINKED	39	0.01	29	31.52
923	MARKS	39	0.01	15	16.30
924	PRECISELY	39	0.01	17	18.48
925	PRESENTS	39	0.01	22	23.91
926	ULRICH	39	0.01	2	2.17
927	VISUAL	39	0.01	16	17.39
928	VOICING	39	0.01	2	2.17
929	ASSOCIATION	38	0.01	12	13.04
930	BULL'S	38	0.01	2	2.17
931	CANDIDATES	38	0.01	6	6.52
932	COMPARISON	38	0.01	22	23.91
933	CONSIDER	38	0.01	24	26.09
934	DOING	38	0.01	26	28.26
935	DOMESTIC	38	0.01	9	9.78
936	EFFECTS	38	0.01	21	22.83
937	EXISTS	38	0.01	21	22.83
938	EXPECTATIONS	38	0.01	20	21.74
939	FIVE	38	0.01	25	27.17
940	FOCUSES	38	0.01	20	21.74
941	FUNCTIONAL	38	0.01	12	13.04
942	FUNDAMENTAL	38	0.01	25	27.17
943	GOING	38	0.01	25	27.17
944	HARD	38	0.01	23	25.00
945	INCREASING	38	0.01	20	21.74
946	LIVE	38	0.01	23	25.00
947	MASS	38	0.01	12	13.04

948	PARTS	38	0.01	23	25.00
949	PHENOMENON	38	0.01	24	26.09
950	PROBABLY	38	0.01	22	23.91
951	REGARDING	38	0.01	25	27.17
952	SKEPTICISM	38	0.01	2	2.17
953	SPEAK	38	0.01	23	25.00
954	SPOKEN	38	0.01	16	17.39
955	STORIES	38	0.01	10	10.87
956	SYLLABLES	38	0.01	6	6.52
957	YEAR	38	0.01	16	17.39
958	ASSUMPTION	37	0.01	20	21.74
959	BELOW	37	0.01	22	23.91
960	BURY	37	0.01	3	3.26
961	CA	37	0.01	4	4.35
962	CATEGORY	37	0.01	20	21.74
963	CONSIDERATION	37	0.01	19	20.65
964	DEAL	37	0.01	22	23.91
965	DESCRIBES	37	0.01	25	27.17
966	FIT	37	0.01	16	17.39
967	GOAL	37	0.01	21	22.83
968	H	37	0.01	12	13.04
969	JOB	37	0.01	14	15.22
970	MORALITY	37	0.01	6	6.52
971	ONE'S	37	0.01	21	22.83
972	OVERALL	37	0.01	24	26.09
973	PASSAGE	37	0.01	12	13.04
974	REGIME	37	0.01	8	8.70
975	SHOT	37	0.01	6	6.52
976	SPACE	37	0.01	22	23.91
977	STAGES	37	0.01	17	18.48
978	STANDARD	37	0.01	21	22.83
979	SURFACE	37	0.01	19	20.65
980	TECHNICAL	37	0.01	16	17.39
981	TECHNIQUES	37	0.01	21	22.83
982	WEST	37	0.01	11	11.96
983	ALLOWED	36	0.01	21	22.83
984	CONSONANT	36	0.01	4	4.35
985	COOPERATION	36	0.01	7	7.61
986	DERIVED	36	0.01	23	25.00
987	DEVELOPING	36	0.01	20	21.74
988	HEDLEY	36	0.01	1	1.09
989	HIGHLIGHTS	36	0.01	22	23.91
990	II	36	0.01	23	25.00
991	INSTITUTIONAL	36	0.01	10	10.87
992	INTERVIEWS	36	0.01	13	14.13
993	LATIN	36	0.01	7	7.61
994	LIMERICKS	36	0.01	1	1.09
995	LOT	36	0.01	25	27.17
996	MEAN	36	0.01	28	30.43
997	METHODOLOGY	36	0.01	15	16.30